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THE NEW EDUCATION IN ITALY

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Under the auspices of the
ITALIAN HISTORICAL SOCIETY

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" Our educational reforms which are inspired by the teachings of modern idealistic philosophy demand that the school be animated and vivified by the spiritual breath of the fatherland."

—GIOVANNI GENTILE

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PREFACE

THE cordial reception accorded to my *NATIONALISM IN ITALIAN EDUCATION*, and the great interest in the subject as evidenced by the demand for copies of this study which I continue to receive, have encouraged me to revise and bring up-to-date my original book on one of the more significant achievements of the Fascist Government in Italy. From the very moment it rose to power Fascism has sought to effect a complete change in all manifestations of Italian life. Fully aware of the fact that the problem of education and instruction is the core of the life of a nation, the Mussolini Government determined to solve it in its entirety. A series of laws from 1923 to the present day, all carefully studied and vigorously applied, have reformed all educational institutions of Italy, from the kindergartens to the universities.

In the course of this study it is my purpose to examine briefly the Italian system of education before Fascism and compare it with the present organization. I will attempt to show the defects of the worn-out and bureaucratic system, and the efficient administration, better adapted to the needs of the country, which has been set up by the Fascist Government. The school which formerly limited itself to imparting an informative education, now undertakes to form and mould the spirit of the Italian youth. The conception of a laic and agnostic school has been completely obliterated, and the Catholic religion now forms the foundation and the crowning point of the education of children in elementary schools. Indeed, if we compare the life of the school and the spirit of the teachers as they were in 1922, with what they are to-day, fourteen years apart, and if we examine data and facts objectively, we are forced to the conclusion that Fascism has done much to improve the educational institutions of the country, and that it has taken gigantic steps in the field of instruction and education of the Italian people.

Obviously, the predominant note in Italian education is still nationalism. As I pointed out in my earlier study, education is a public policy, closely related to the economic, social, and political con-

ditions of a country, and Mussolini, who is determined to build an efficient, prosperous, and patriotic nation, has quite naturally enlisted the co-operation of the schools in his efforts, and utilized them to effect his aims.

So much has been done in the field of Italian education since the publication of my NATIONALISM IN ITALIAN EDUCATION in 1927, that it has been necessary to revise completely, and to rewrite the present study almost entirely. I do not wish to imply by this statement that the Gentile reform, named after Giovanni Gentile, the first Minister of Education in the Mussolini Government, has been entirely destroyed. In making this statement I am not unmindful of the changes that have been introduced in the Italian school system since Gentile's resignation. The spirit of the Gentile reform remains unchanged, especially in the elementary school. It must be remembered, however, that education is a continuous process, and must be constantly revised and brought up-to-date in order to meet present-day conditions and requirements. Furthermore, the Gentile reform was so vast in scope and content, and so sweeping in character that modifications have been made to adapt the school better to changing requirements and conditions, and to correct those faults which experience alone could remedy.

The documents and other literature on which the present study is based were collected by the author during his visit to Italy in the summer of 1934. Additional and later material has been sent to him by the Ministry of National Education.

I desire to thank Senator Giovanni Gentile, former Minister of Education, and His Excellency Pier Parini, Director General of Italians Abroad, who facilitated the observations described in this book, and helped in securing the necessary documents. I also wish to thank Dr. Edoardo Scardamaglia, Director General of Academies and Libraries; Dr. Antonio Morelli, of the Department of Higher Education; Dr. Giuseppe Giustini, Director General of Classical, Scientific, and Normal High Schools; Dr. Giuseppe Caruso, of the Department of Technical High Schools; and Dr. Giulio Santini, Director General of the Department of Elementary Education—all of whom have supplied the necessary documentary material for this study.

I wish to express my sincere appreciation to Professor Dino Bigongiari, Executive Officer of the Italian Department of Columbia University, for encouragement and invaluable criticism received in the preparation of this book.

It is a pleasure for me to express my sincere appreciation and debt of gratitude to Gr. Uff. Generoso Pope for the kind assistance he has so spontaneously given me during the publication of this work.

I am indebted to Dr. Merritt Moore Thompson for permission to use material from his book on THE EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY OF GENTILE, published by the University of Southern California Press, 1934. I also wish to thank Dr. I. L. Kandel, Professor of Education and Associate, International Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University, for permission to quote from Professor E. Codignola's article published in the 1929 EDUCATIONAL YEARBOOK, and also several paragraphs from Professor Codignola's manuscript, which were not published in the YEARBOOK.

I wish to thank Miss Mary R. Boulger, Miss Frances Keen, and Mr. Henry Silver for their help in the preparation of the manuscript.

The bibliography has been brought up-to-date, but it does not claim to be complete. I have added only the more significant books and articles on the subject of Italian education.

HOWARD R. MARRARÓ

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
SEPTEMBER 1936

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION

Fascist Ideals in Education

One of the outstanding achievements of the Fascist régime in Italy has been the establishment of a national educational system. Prior to the organization of the Fascist State educational standards and conditions varied greatly in different parts of the country. There were no uniform cultural values and no national educational ideals. The wide divergence in cultural aims and standards throughout the country had its origin in the history of the several localities. It must be remembered that until modern times the Italian people had no political unity, no independence, and no organized existence as a nation. Split up into numerous and mutually hostile communities, they never, during the fourteen centuries which followed the fall of the old Western Empire, shook off the yoke of the foreigner completely. Their country was a geographical, not a cultural, unity; a federation of dissimilar provinces, not a nation. Only recently have they learned to merge their local and conflicting interests in the common good of undivided Italy. Even today Spanish and French influences and traditions are still strong in Southern Italy, and in the Po Valley German influences persist. The modes of life and standards of comfort and morality in Northern Italy differ greatly from those of Calabria.

In a certain sense, then, it is a mistake to speak of the Italian character, for the Italian is highly individual. This fact explains why Italy was so long without an educational system. Where there was an experiment in education, where pioneer work was done, it centered entirely around one man, frequently dying with him. "Italians cannot create methods, or train disciples," says Giuseppe Prezzolini, "things last the lifetime of one man, then die or change . . . There are no organizations as in Germany . . . Italians are too individual . . . they are a people full of originality"

Bearing this statement in mind it is easy to see why it was necessary for the Fascist program to present not only a rule of political conduct, but also a moral and cultural code. This program states that "the nation is not merely the sum total of living individuals, or the instrument of parties for their own ends, but an organism comprising the unlimited series of generations, of which individuals are merely transient elements; it is the synthesis of all the material and non-material values of the race."¹ The Fascist doctrine was authoritatively set forth by the late Professor Alfredo Rocco, then Minister of Justice, in a speech at Perugia on August 31, 1925, in which he declared that, according to Fascism, society does not exist for the individual, but the individual for society. However, Fascism does not ignore the individual as the individuals ignored society under certain older political systems, but merely subordinates him to society, while safeguarding his right to develop his personality.

Fascism is aiming to embody its main principles in a series of legislative reforms which will make of Italy an essentially national State, as opposed to the pre-existing liberal State, wherein the seditious elements were free to conspire against the general welfare in the interest of class or clique. These reforms comprise the organization of the Corporate Parliament, the reorganization of the bureaucracy in the interests of efficiency, the creation of a new educational system, the peaceable regulation of labor conflicts, the re-establishment of discipline in every department of the State and every aspect of national life, the improvement of agriculture, and the progress of industry.

In studying the reform of Italian education under the Fascist régime, it is important to note the relationship between the new educational system and nationalism. The two great forces that have operated in the development of modern society are nationalism and democracy. Both of these forces have profoundly modified educational ideas and practices. In fact, the operation of the two forces has produced the modern public school system; and the varying forms which the modern state systems of education have taken are due to the diverse operation of these forces. In a very striking way the force of nationalism has been the determining one in shaping the school systems of the Italians and other European peoples, while in the United States the force of

¹Rocco, Alfredo, *The political doctrine of Fascism*. International Conciliation, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. October 1926.

democracy has been chiefly responsible for the characteristic educational views and practices.

The basis of nationality has been variously analyzed and assigned. Its essential characteristics, however, are a common language, common religious beliefs and organizations, natural boundaries, common culture, which includes common ideas, common aspirations, common habits, common intuitions, common aims and purposes. These are the ties which hold a people together in a nationality. The new organization of Italian education as formulated by Professor Giovanni Gentile, who entered Mussolini's cabinet as Minister of Public Instruction in 1922, is designed to strengthen the bonds of nationality in Italy through the cultivation of a common culture. Herein is its great divergence from the educational system of the United States, where school activities are primarily determined by the interests of the individual, and are organized for the development of individuality rather than for any nationalistic consideration.

The divergence between the two systems becomes clearer as we look into the characteristics of the Italian national scheme of education. In the first place, there is in this system a sharp differentiation between elementary and secondary education. The elementary and secondary schools are organized to produce different cultural results. In fact they form parallel educational systems. Only students who are seriously inclined and who have shown themselves to possess the necessary mental ability are permitted to receive a secondary school education in government institutions. For the mediocre student a well-rounded education is provided in the elementary school.

Another characteristic of the system is a perfection of detail in method of organization and selection of subject matter, such as is not attained in American schools. This is due in part to the more prolonged and uniform training of teachers, in part to the fact that their tenure is usually a life one and that they are as a rule considered public officials, and in part to the greater stability of social customs and institutions as compared with the flexibility of these in America. This perfection of detail is the result of a dominant national control.

A further characteristic, and the last which we will note in the many that might be suggested, is that of compulsory religious education, which, however, is not incompatible with freedom in ecclesiastical affiliation or religious belief. The Italians, like most European peoples, insist upon the inclusion of religious training in the state

education because they believe that a religious education of an orthodox type given by teachers who are state officials, or who hold their positions by virtue of conformity to very definite state and ecclesiastical requirements, constitutes a factor in national stability.

A study of the organization and curricula of all types of schools in Italy as laid down in the Fascist educational reforms, clearly shows how the spirit of nationalism has been embodied in the very life of the school. The elementary school, for example, which formerly aimed almost exclusively at the teaching of the three R's, aspiring only to give the pupil the technical equipment for acquiring culture and not culture *per se*, has now become the true formative school of the great mass of people. The learning of the technical means is now of secondary importance, and attention is focused on cultural and spiritual development, which, in the case of the child, is brought about especially through religious and artistic instruction. The same principle has been followed in the secondary school, where the formative subjects have been greatly developed somewhat at the expense of scientific training. Latin has been introduced into all the secondary schools; history has received a more prominent position in the curriculum and its spirit has been recast; philosophy and education have been greatly emphasized. The whole system of secondary education has been fundamentally based on the direct knowledge of the classics.

However, the Gentile reform aimed at a clear distinction between the different types of secondary schools, which correspond to the leading forms of activity and the essential needs of life, namely, schools of humanistic or "formative" character, and schools of distinct vocational purpose, for the most part "informative" in content and scope. The aim given to school methods and programs, moreover, was designed to transform entirely the type of education. That is to say, teaching was no longer to be solely transmission of knowledge and was to become what all great educators have more or less consciously aimed at: a live spiritual force, acting on the mind and stimulating creative activity. This type of teaching has become a form of national education, with a spiritual purpose, conscious of its *Italianità*.

The reform also radically altered the underlying principle of examinations, and provided that the student should be judged not according to the criteria of the past, but rather by those of the future; not for what he had done, but for what he was capable of doing;

not by the quantity of information he was able to lay before the commission, but in the light of the maturity of mind and character that he displayed.

The new educational system is designed to bring all forms of teaching and educational activity within a single control; and for this reason all vocational schools dependent on the Ministry of National Economy as well as the National Balilla Institute, which has taken over the task of the physical training of boys, have been placed under the Ministry of National Education. This singleness of cultural aim and of cultural control is expressed in the name of this Ministry, which has taken the place of the former Ministry of Public Instruction.

The emphasis on culture which is found in the curricula of secondary schools is even more pronounced in the universities, which stress the general spiritual and mental development of the student and his ability to orient himself in his studies and in his life, rather than the particular knowledge of various subjects. The state licensure examination introduced by the reform aims precisely at this new cultural direction.

In short, Fascism has aimed and is still aiming at the creation of a new school system which imparts energy of thought and of will to the rising generations; it aspires to develop a culture that will represent the consciousness of all the manifold and fertile powers accumulated by the Italian race throughout its history. In the following chapters we shall see how the operation of the educational system established by the Fascist Government realizes these ideals.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The Casati Educational Law of 1859

It is not possible to form an accurate idea of the importance and effects of the Gentile educational reforms of 1923 unless it is noted that until that year, education in Italy was still being administered under the famous law promulgated November 13, 1859, during the Second War of Independence, by the liberal King Victor Emanuel II of Savoy at the instance of his Minister, Gabrio Casati, establishing a system of public instruction for Piedmont and Lombardy. This ordinance, which placed education under the control of the State, according to the French system of centralization and uniformity, was gradually extended to the newly annexed regions, which were almost all more backward culturally than Piedmont or Lombardy. All types of schools became patterned after the Piedmontese model. Elementary and secondary schools were increased especially in regions where they were most needed. But at first the preparation of many teachers was so inadequate that the results of the new school aroused the criticism of many impatient educators who were anxious to see the schools of Italy compete with those of the more advanced modern nations. The truth is that after Rome became the capital of Italy in 1870, the country was faced with problems so complex and intricate; statesmen, such as there were, were so preoccupied by the insufficient solidity and cohesion of the new national edifice, that it was not always possible to keep the schools in the foreground. The original law was, of course, modified to meet the new cultural and social exigencies, and more specifically the local needs. The changes, however, struck a blow at the very spirit and significance of the law. They tended, in fact, to destroy its liberal character, thus effecting an even greater degree of centralization and rigid organization than had been originally intended.

According to the Casati law the entire educational system in all its branches—higher, intermediate and elementary—was centralized in the Ministry of Public Instruction composed of four general departments, which were further subdivided into divisions and sections. The Minister of Public Instruction, as chief executive officer, directed all public instruction (exclusive of that of the military, nautical and vocational schools, and the kindergartens), and supervised private instruction. He had the right to issue orders and instructions to his subordinates, to amend or annul their acts, and to decide on conflicts arising among them. The Minister was assisted by a Central Office of Inspection consisting of twelve inspectors of secondary schools and ten of elementary schools, and by a special advisory technical council known as the Higher Council of Public Instruction.

In the government of schools the central administration was assisted by provincial school boards. The provincial school administration was composed of an educational supervisor, who was the chief provincial officer of the central administration. Each province also had a school bureau which carried on the educational business of the province.

The Casati law also provided that public elementary schools were to be administered directly by the councils of the representative municipalities elected by general suffrage. But in 1911 the municipalities, because of their failure to provide adequate facilities, were deprived of the right to administer their elementary schools, except in the case of the chief cities of provinces and districts, and other more progressive and richer municipalities which guaranteed the greatest possible development of education. All the other public elementary schools were entrusted to a special body called the Provincial School Council, composed of fifteen members. In every province there was also a Government Delegation composed of five members, exercising financial control over all the expenditures decided upon by the Provincial School Council. The discretionary powers of the municipality, even when it was allowed to administer its schools, were reduced to a minimum. The regular municipal organs of administration were closely restricted by state regulations and laws, and they had to receive the approval of the Provincial School Council in all educational matters.

This system though good in many respects, was bureaucratic and lacked elasticity. The teachers were allowed no initiative. The sub-

jects prescribed were too numerous, and yet fine arts and music and games were not taught. Perhaps the worst feature of the schools was the teaching staff itself, which had become stereotyped and lifeless. In an attempt to be objective, teachers stressed dates, names, figures and facts. Primary education was theoretically compulsory, but the weak spot in the system was the difficulty of enforcing the compulsory regulations. This was partly due to the slight interest taken by the nation in education, notwithstanding the fact that the schools were open to everyone.

The chief aim of the Casati law was to effect a definite and thorough secularization of all public educational institutions, from the elementary school to the university. Religion continued to be taught in the primary grades, and for obvious political expediency, the faculty of theology was retained in the university.¹ However, all clerical influences were definitely removed from the new educational organization. This provision naturally strained the relations between Church and State, for the Vatican has always denied to the modern State the right of shaping consciences, its principle being that there are only two rights of education, a natural one of the family, and a supernatural one of the Catholic Church. Nevertheless, the Casati law removed the control of elementary education from the family and Church and became thenceforth a State function.

A rapid survey of the various educational bills and reports presented after 1859, cannot fail to impress the reader with the numerous plans and proposals that died before acquiring definite form, and the honest and sincere efforts which were destined to failure. The Casati educational law had barely been passed and put into effect when modifications were introduced. The succeeding ministers of public instruction—Bertini, Berti, Coppino, Bonghi, Boselli, Villari and others—dealt with various special problems: e.g., the increase or decrease of the number of hours devoted to Latin; the continuance or discontinuance of courses in Greek; whether technical and vocational education should be under the Ministry of Public Instruction or under the Ministry of Agriculture, etc., etc. All proposals were limited to certain specific points—examinations, inspections, salaries, distribution of schools, and the "single type school." All of these were no doubt im-

¹The law of January 26, 1873, abolished the faculty of theology in all government universities.

portant questions, but evidently their solution was possible only by incorporating them in a vast plan of educational reform. For in spite of several attempts at reform, the deplorable conditions in education in Italy at the beginning of the present century are well-known to all experts. Even the text-books used in the various types of schools had lost their value. The Italian classics were no longer read; in fact, they were not even being reprinted. Of the works of the great Italian pedagogists of the Renaissance and the Risorgimento nothing was available except some dusty volumes on library shelves or in second-hand book stores.

The Corradini Survey of 1907

Especially alarming were the conditions of the elementary schools during the early years of the present century. So deplorable indeed were they that the Ministry of Public Instruction found it necessary to appoint a special commission for an exhaustive survey on primary and popular education. The bulky report of Dr. Camillo Corradini, the chairman of the commission, and Director-General of Elementary and Popular Instruction, reveals the thoroughness with which the study was carried out. It examined in great detail every phase of elementary school and popular education. The following outline taken from the table of contents is an indication of the extent and scope of the investigation:²

Part I. Organization of elementary and popular schools.

1. Public day schools.
2. Private day elementary schools.
3. Popular course (the fifth and sixth grades).
4. Evening and holiday schools.
5. Pupils.
6. Teachers and teaching.
7. Inspectors and inspections.

Part II. School buildings.

1. Conditions of school buildings.
2. Work of the Ministry with reference to school buildings.

²A translation of the conclusions of this report, because of their importance, is given in Appendix B.

3. Elementary school buildings with reference to their technical, hygienic, and pedagogical aspects.
4. School equipment and educational material.

Part III. School assistance and the schools' subsidiary institutions.

1. Content and development of school assistance.
2. Present condition of institutes of school assistance.
3. Work of the Ministry with regard to school assistance.
4. Popular libraries.

Part IV. Pre-elementary institutions.

1. Kindergartens and their relation to welfare problems.
2. Work of the Ministry with reference to kindergartens.
3. Questions concerning pre-elementary and related institutions.

Part V. Organization of the services for elementary education.

1. Central and provincial administrations.
2. Controversies relating to elementary education and the Advisory Commission for Controversies.
3. Application of the law of July 15, 1906, and the Central Commission for the South.
4. Subsidiary school services.

Part VI. Expenditures on elementary and popular education.

1. Service for competitions and reimbursements to communes and the expenditures of the State.
2. Expenditures by communes.

Conclusion.

The report revealed many serious deficiencies, not only in organization but in the aims and purposes of the elementary school. There were not enough schools, especially in the South, to enable the authorities to enforce properly the compulsory elementary school law. The State funds allocated for the support of the elementary schools were not at all adequate to the needs of the municipalities. Especially lamentable was the training which the students in normal schools were receiving. But though the report gave a pessimistic picture of the actual conditions of the elementary schools, it held out faint rays of hope for a happier and brighter future in education.

Effect of the World War on Education

The recommendations contained in the Corradini report were not acted upon, chiefly because of the social and political conditions which then prevailed everywhere in Italy. The Italian-Turkish War, the Balkan War, which kept Italian statesmen occupied with international questions, and the rising tide of socialism, with the unrest which accompanied it, were factors that contributed to a general lack of interest in educational organization. However, the economic and social upheaval of Italy caused by her entrance into the World War in May, 1915, inevitably led her educators to submit her traditional system of education to more careful scrutiny than ever before, and to recognize how inadequate it was along certain lines to meet the demands thrust upon it by the new conditions. The War demonstrated the necessity of raising the moral stature of the nation, since it was shown that the vital force of the nation was represented by its moral force. Italian educators, therefore, were not slow in taking advantage of the new strategic position of the schools to start a propaganda of reform, which was taken up by the educational and secular press. Of the numerous projects and plans suggested, many naturally were not adopted; but all showed a uniform national desire to throw off the deadhand of traditionalism and to make education subserve the needs of the nation.

A definite move was begun during the World War for the complete reconstruction of the entire lower public school system. Among the fruitful suggestions made by such bodies as the National Union of Italian Teachers, approved by the Minister and commended by the Committee on Education in the Chamber of Deputies, were the following:³

1. The length of the elementary school course should be shortened to four years at most. The curriculum should be modified in content and scope, and adapted to the comprehension and advancement of the pupils. Fewer subjects should be taught, and these should be taught well. The traditional repetition of programs and schedules should at once be eliminated, and subjects should be divided into definitely briefer assignments adapted to the capacity of the pupil.

2. The number of pupils in each class under one teacher should be limited to twenty-five.

³Montgomery, Walter A., *Education in Italy*. In U.S.—Department of Interior Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1919, No. 89, p. 263-264.

3. School attendance should be absolutely obligatory between definitely prescribed school age limits. This requirement should be rigorously enforced by the civil authorities, with graduated scales of fines for delinquent parents and guardians.

4. With the improvement in teaching thus demanded, teachers' salaries should be raised from the prevailing average of 200 lire (then equivalent to \$40.00) a month to at least twice that amount, and this increase should be accompanied by an emphasis upon the importance and standing of the teacher in the community. The elementary school teacher should be required to have a teacher's diploma.

5. On the administrative side, more efficient operation of the system of inspection should be secured by a reduction in the number of vice-inspectors from 1,000 to 600, and an increase in the number of full inspectors from 400 to 600, the new posts to be filled entirely by members of the lower grade, and promotions to be made solely on the basis of merit and service. The jurisdiction of inspectors of either grade should be limited to thirty municipalities at most. Vice-inspectors should be relieved of all teaching functions, and should be required to devote their attention exclusively to supervisory duties in the zones assigned to them.

6. Fundamental to all these reforms, greater local power should be granted to communes in the management of the elementary schools and in the adjustment of courses to local needs and conditions. The subjects taught in remote rural schools should be differentiated sharply from those taught in cities and large towns.

No definite reforms in elementary education were put into effect during the War, but under the administration of Agostino Berenini, Minister of Public Instruction from October 30, 1917, to June 23, 1919, systematic attempts were made, insofar as this was possible by departmental ordinances, to bring elementary education into vital relation with the needs of every day life, especially in the rural districts.

In June 1918, a commission, headed by the Minister of Public Instruction and other Italian educational experts, was appointed by royal decree to study and report upon the adaptation of curricula and teaching methods to changing conditions. The composite report of the commission appeared the same week as the signing of the armistice, and contained the following recommendations:

1. Enforcement of all school laws, and the overhauling of the national financial system to this end.

2. Establishment of kindergartens as part of the national education system.
3. Construction of new school buildings in proportion to the population of the various districts, so as to enforce properly the compulsory school law.
4. Establishment in every municipality of one or more schools of four grades.
5. Establishment of special secondary schools for preliminary training of teachers.
6. Raising the minimum salary of teachers to 3,000 lire a year.
7. Lengthening the school year.
8. Compulsory school attendance until the age of eighteen years.
9. Establishment of schools for illiterate adults and the enforced attendance at these schools of illiterates under forty-five years of age.
10. Establishment of popular courses and schools of hygiene and sanitation, languages, etc.
11. Subordination of the national budget to the needs of popular education, and not vice versa.

The striking feature of this move is that even during the War, the Italian Government realized that there could be no renewal of her economic life without an accompanying revision of her educational system. In 1920-21, the reform of the schools was taken up by the Minister, Benedetto Croce, who attempted to institute certain changes in line with Gentile's ideas, but he was unsuccessful because of the political confusion of the period. His bill on secondary school examinations showed the scope of the reforms he had planned. But the fall of the Ministry on July 4, 1921, prevented a parliamentary discussion of his bill and conditions remained unchanged.

It is important to note that for more than sixty years the Casati Law withstood the pressing and destructive forces of stormy political and social vicissitudes, of the economic changes of the country, and of the new interests which appeared on the spiritual horizon of Italy. These facts are noteworthy for they demonstrate the soundness of its structure and its intrinsic adherence to Italian character and tradition. Generally speaking, even the Gentile reform, which in many respects has upheld the fundamental principles of the Casati law, represents

not a repudiation but a further development and strengthening of these principles.⁴

Gentile's Reform

When Benito Mussolini became Premier of Italy he appointed Professor Giovanni Gentile, Italian philosopher and educator, as Minister of Public Instruction. This was on October 31, 1922. Shortly afterward, on December 3, 1922, the Chamber of Deputies, at the request of the Government, passed an act by which very broad discretionary powers were vested in the Minister, who was thus enabled to put his ideas into practice with unusual freedom. In twenty months, for he resigned on July 1, 1924, Gentile succeeded in completely reorganizing the Italian school system. So much was accomplished during the short time he held office that his work is known as 'the Gentile reform. It unquestionably marked a milestone in the history of Italian education.

There are two major aspects to Gentile's educational reforms. The first and unquestionably the more important of the two is philosophical or spiritual, and represents a change from materialism to idealism; the second is practical and concrete, and has to do with fundamental changes in the administrative organization of the schools.

The real essence of the reform can be fully understood only through a study of the philosophic principles of the old and new school systems. Toward the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the present century the positivistic or Herbartian direction of pedagogy was predominant in Italy. Italian culture and education were inspired by the principles of positivism, which in education led to the conception of a self-styled lay school in which neutralism, eclecticism and religious skepticism necessarily triumphed. The school not only rendered the soul of the pupil sterile, but encumbered his mind with a mass of unorganized theories. The educational system was dominated by a knowledge concept, with the result that the schools from the elementary grades to the university were only a little better than diploma mills.

However, in spite of its intrinsic speculative weakness, positivistic

⁴Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929, p. 388.

philosophy left a deep trace on Italian culture, as was later revealed by Gentile, who, while definitely discarding positivism, accepted many of its demands. Gentile declared that positivism had rendered a great service to the progress of Italian culture, which, he said, had remained stagnant for about a century, and which was incapable of any originality or initiative in matters of positive, historical or natural research. In these fields, he said, Italy had been great in the seventeenth century and in the first half of the eighteenth. However, in the second half of the eighteenth century, the cycle of Italy's decadence was completed; erudition and the experimental sciences disappeared. Italians did not become aware of this great void until after their spiritual reawakening; then they became impatient to vie with foreign cultures and determined honorably to resume their place in the civilized world; then they realized that they lacked the possession of the concrete; then they indeed began to philosophize. Italy had had able historians; she had had even powerful minds in the natural sciences, and inventors and critics of inestimable worth; but her universities lacked that systematic discipline of studies, which must work hand in hand if nature is to be ferreted out from all sides and if its phenomena are to be clearly defined. In other words, Italian culture was unbalanced. In order to make it balance, it became necessary for scientists to turn their back to ideas and go after facts. In the words of Gentile:

"The merit, and it is not a small one, indeed, of having promoted, favored and encouraged a spiritual enrichment, whose value, as is usually the case, goes beyond the best intentions of the positivists, is due to positivism. For, as a consequence of it, we can now, with a more accurate sense of the life which is the concreteness of history (natural and human), strive to attain to a higher understanding of the idea, which the positivists failed to recognize."⁵

With positivism as a basis, early in the twentieth century critical theories underwent a considerable change. This was due, as has been noted, to the general reaction against positivism and materialism in favor of idealism, which is plainly in the Italian tradition. The new

⁵Gentile, Giovanni, *Le origini della filosofia contemporanea in Italia: I neo-Kantiani e gli Hegeliani*, pp. 178, 199. Quoted from Ernesto Codignola, "La filosofia ed il problema dell'Educazione Nazionale in Italia." Unpublished manuscript in the library of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, p. 140-144.

movement found its most eminent supporters in Benedetto Croce and Giovanni Gentile. These scholars undertook a general revision of the prevailing positivistic doctrine, and after twenty years of untiring and continuous work they succeeded in finding a new formula for culture.

Gentile, through an original critical revaluation of the history of thought, and especially Italian philosophy, developed a system of actual idealism and absolute immanentism, which represents the most decisive victory over all types of mere intellectualism. Gentile, who is above all an educator, has developed his philosophy into a true theory of education. In substance, Gentile's theory may be stated as follows: Since man is neither object nor nature, but mind and process, that is, self-consciousness, the science, which studies the education of man, that is, the science of the formation of the mind can be neither empirical nor naturalistic. It cannot limit itself to analyzing the mind as a thing, but must identify itself with philosophy, which is after all "the science of the whole development of the mind as freedom."

The fundamental principles of the Gentile educational reforms may perhaps be most easily understood by examining the positivist's educational ideals which prevailed in the schools in pre-Fascist days. To the positivist educator the work of the elementary school consisted in completely undoing what the child had acquired before his admission to school. Thus the positivist maintained that the notions, the beliefs, the emotions of the young pupil had to be radically amended, if not actually eradicated, before education could really be started. The positivist saw that the child's mental equipment unfortunately consisted of fairy tales and wild fancies; that his character had been weakened by a mother's unreasoning tenderness; that his religious beliefs were destructive of any scientific interest; that his speech usually consisted of some form of dialect which had to be replaced by the use of the literary language; and that the child's usual fondness for drawing pictures, for whistling, and singing was a great obstacle to the acquisition of sound knowledge. The positivist was unable to see the moral and artistic possibilities presented by the child's tendencies and spiritual endowments. He therefore set about to replace these vagaries, sentimentalities, and caprices with a body of knowledge which the teacher is supposed to possess, and which he could and should administer to the young minds. This objective information was to drive out of the child's mind all the fairy tales and replace them with sound historical accounts; it was to furnish elementary scientific data which

would tend to weaken his belief in the supernatural; it was to discourage the use of dialect and the attachment to local traditions; it was to correct the effects of tender maternal teachings by the application of cold, unemotional doctrines; and finally it was to teach the child that over the home and way above the fatherland there is that humanity to whose cause he must exclusively identify himself.

This was the goal imposed on elementary instruction by positivism. It implied, as has already been noted, the belief that what the child brought to school was all wrong and therefore to be done away with; that there was a body of objective knowledge, of external science all ready made and definitely cut out to fit all needs, and ready, therefore, to be poured into the soul of the child as soon as it had been cleansed of its initial impurities; it implied also that the teacher who was to perform this task was one thing, and the pupil another, for the teacher was separated from his pupil by an abyss which separated knowledge from ignorance; and it finally implied that the union between the two, teacher and pupil, could take place if the pupil's mind was entirely stripped of its original endowment, divested of its personality, absorbed by the teacher or rather by the abstractions of text-books and arid tenets of programmatic work.

This is approximately the picture which an idealist had of positivistic education at its inception. Against the principles of positivism, idealism advanced the following criticism:

The personality of the child, in the concreteness of its emotions and notions, is the source of all future development and should therefore be sacred to the teacher. He must try to build on that solid foundation of practical fancy which the child carries into the classroom; he must build the child's character on his emotions, and utilize his devotions to the upbuilding of a moral conscience.

The idealist maintained that education must not consist in the supposition of an external truth, but in the establishment of an internal agreement and harmony. The condemnation of the pupil's beliefs, the replacing of his daubs with a more "artistic line," and the derision of his fairy land are all senseless. The awkwardness of the child's drawing, the fictitiousness of his images are his concrete personality which must in itself even though with the guidance of the teacher, be progressively raised to the realization of the humanity that is latent in him and which is to be awakened by the opportune contacts with history and nature.

Therefore, teaching is formative, not informative, and accordingly there should be no fixed body of notions to be imparted, no fixed frame enclosing teacher and pupils. Educational programs should not be compulsory, but directive so that the elementary school teacher, though constantly bearing in mind the end in view, may be free to modify his methods in accordance with the varying needs and dispositions of his pupils. The classroom must not be looked upon as composed of two distinct halves, one completely active and the other completely passive, but rather as a constant communion, as a continuous educational process, as a unified activity in which the teacher's capacity to recognize the pupils' endowments will predominate.

The new programs of the elementary school take into account the pupil flesh and blood, with all his aspirations, all his national traits, and his historical reality. Therefore, the idealist declares that the school cannot maintain an attitude of indifference in the matter of religion. The lay, agnostic, or, worse still, anticlerical school is the opposite of what idealistic pedagogy is striving to achieve. As Professor Ernesto Codignola aptly puts it:

"The pupil is a religious being and not a scientific one in the traditional sense of positivism. He demands therefore a religious education. What is meant by this? Does it mean that we must condemn scientific teaching, and lead the school back to the methods of the Dark Ages? Decidedly not. What is meant above all is that science should be taught in the proper time and place, and that, moreover, insofar as it is a particular science, we do not concede to it the right to pass a decision in the rights of religion. Moreover, it is affirmed that religion in general and the Catholic religion in particular, far from being a fabric of errors and prejudices, is always a complete intuition of life, a vital organism, and a most profound system of truth, which philosophy may indeed elaborate by its own method, under a new form, and represent in a new organism, but which it can never destroy as the concrete form of a definite truth. The rarefied air of philosophic speculation can be breathed only by a very few beings. Religious education recognizes the fact that the boy came to school with a Catholic background, that the first awakening of the sense of duty, the first admonishing bond were in the home, the first realization of a devotion are all connected with this Catholic tradition. Religious education

continues and develops the teachings that were first dictated by a mother's tenderness."⁶

Nor can the school, according to the idealist, be indifferent to questions of patriotism. In the eyes of the idealist, the ethical and cultural State must be the goal of education from its start. As Gentile himself said in his inaugural address to the fall session of the Higher Council of Public Instruction on November 27, 1922: "Never has our national culture been so keenly responsive to the superior aspirations of the mind, not solely in the sphere of aesthetics and of abstract science, but in the realm of ethics and religion. For a school without a religion and ethical content is an absurdity. The school is never a form and instrument of the uplifting of the mind; but it is this very uplifting itself, it is formation of men, of consciences. There is no conscience which possesses a form indifferent to its content, to its own faith. Every faith is sacred, but some faith there must be. And the Italian school, which the State, as the sovereign consciousness of the Italian people, must maintain and support with unswerving determination, and with a sound realization of its own duty, this school must be human in its adherence to a universal faith, but it must also and always be Italian because of its trust in the national faith."

The elementary school curriculum, as revised by the Gentile reform, also stresses artistic instruction. But the aesthetic exercises of the classroom are looked upon as a means "to discipline the expressive powers of the child; they must help him to speak with clarity and precision, for singing, drawing, modeling, playing are all varieties of speech." And the rôle of the teacher in this aesthetic practice consists not in showing how superior his lines are to those of the pupil, but rather to discover in even the modest attempts of the child something upon which to build. The teacher must never impose his personality to crush the humble endeavors with a manifestation of superiority.⁷ "At the beginning," as Gentile said, "it is wise for the teacher to approve even the most ill-shaped daubs, which, after all, are the maximum which the child can offer at that moment. This does not mean that the learner is to be extolled for his deficiencies, but it does mean that all the teacher can do is to awaken in him the realization of his own inadequacy, by helping him to enrich his mind and broaden

⁶Codignola, *op. cit.*, p. 189.

⁷Educational Yearbook, *op. cit.*, p. 397.

his mental horizon, to see more clearly into himself, rather than by insisting from time to time upon his individual errors."⁸ It must be emphasized that to the idealist the daubs of the young pupil, who tries to order his intuitions, contain more truth than the learned corrections of the teacher. Truth does not lie in a fixed expression, but in the truth of the expression. In this manner the pupil will find the conditions for developing his own possibilities and thus spontaneously develop his personality.

The new educational ideals which we have discussed in connection with the reforms introduced in the elementary school have been applied also to the reorganization of secondary and university education. In the mind of the reforming philosopher all of them, at all stages of development, are but applications of the principle of liberty. The true substance of the school is in the life of the mind which can only thrive if protected both from tyranny in administrative organization and from mechanization of methodology. As Gentile himself said before the Higher Council of Public Instruction on November 27, 1922: "The school can live only on one condition; that it be truly a school, that is, spirit, liberty. It is high time that a régime of complete freedom be inaugurated by means of laws which are dictated solely by the nature itself of the studies, and only by it. I claim freedom for the teachers and freedom for the pupils, but with it a sense of responsibility which is to be in proportion to the sphere of this liberty which is destined to grow with the expansion of culture which is nothing more than progressive conquest of liberty."⁹

Closely related to Gentile's educational theories are his social and political philosophy and his conception of the State and its relation to the individual. Gentile is the philosopher of Fascism. His conception of the State is derived from Hegel, who taught that liberty is to be sought and won; that it is an ideal to be realized, not a natural right of man. Law, morality, and government are the positive reality and completion of freedom. Education must evoke the common will in the individual, which then becomes law and the State. Hence, these latter are not superimposed upon the individual, but are his very essence. Gentile expanded the Hegelian idea of the State as primarily moral, into what he terms the *Stato etico*, the ethical state. The *Stato*

⁸Educational Yearbook, op. cit., p. 398.

⁹Codignola, op. cit., p. 179.

etico is characterized by activity, creation and movement, objectifying the energies of its members. Thus the struggle, conflict and opposition of the Fascist State are more significant for liberty than are the static principles and inactive parliament of the democratic state.¹⁰

Gentile's task, as the philosopher of Fascism, has been to expound and interpret the inner significance of the Fascist movement, identifying it with the older Italian stream of culture. He finds it a spiritual movement centered around a fundamental structure, nucleus or living idea which directs thought as an inspiration or tendency. Education, history, philosophy, art, the daily political struggle, the polemic of journalism, parliamentary debate all converge at the point where Fascism is struggling to give its form to the State and beyond the State to all that is spiritual. The Fascist concept of the State identified it with the nation. The nation, however, is not a natural existence, but a moral reality; no one finds it already made; each one labors to create it. A people does not constitute a nation because it has a history, but because it is able to feel its past and appropriates it into its own personality with a vivid consciousness. A nation and a people do not possess liberty as a natural right; they achieve it through their own efforts. Fascism is a return to the *Risorgimento* with the renewed vigor of a visible proof of the power of the Italian people.¹¹

The *Stato etico* of Gentile is the only concrete will, in the sense that an individual apart from his social relationships is an abstraction; and the State is the whole relationship of which the individual is a part. The completeness of the State as will implies the characteristics of a person. To will there must be a knowledge of what one wills, of ends and means, that is, primarily, a consciousness of one's self, an affirmation of one's own autonomy, a distinction between one's self and others. This character of a person implies moral activity, that is, activity directed by an ideal. The State is the national conscience and the will of that conscience. Consequently it is the ideal toward which the citizen strives and for which he even sacrifices himself when it is necessary. Its moral is absolute, but it is a moral which includes the individual with all his interests and relationships. The State is not a building in which man lives. It is man himself.¹²

¹⁰Thompson, Merritt Moore, *The educational philosophy of Giovanni Gentile*, p. 9.

¹¹Thompson, op. cit., p. 40.

¹²Quoted and condensed from Thompson, op. cit., p. 41.

Gentile summarizes his theory of the Fascist State as follows:

The Fascist State is the sovereign State, sovereign in fact and not merely in theory; the strong State, which does not admit other forces equal or limiting, although it, as every moral force, being self-contained, has within itself its own limit. The Fascist State is not a State superimposed upon the citizen, but rather a State which grants him citizenship and realizes itself in his consciousness. To accomplish this realization of itself it stimulates and educates his conscious life, studies it profoundly, and treats it as it is and as it ought to be, historically, economically, morally, and politically, with all the fundamental interests which determine its orientation and urge it to specialized activity. The Fascist State, to penetrate and direct the conscious life of the citizens, would organize them into a national unity, which is, however, a soul, a person, a potent will, conscious of its ends. Thus, the State has its own ends, which are not those of any particular citizen, nor of any class of citizens, nor of the sum or total mass of individuals who on a given day live within the territory of the State held together by common jurisdiction. National unity (the Fascists know and feel it keenly) is not something which exists at a given time. It has its roots in the past and from the present is projected into the future. Today it lives insofar as its vitality, which is the fruit of the centuries, is poured into the immediate and remote tomorrows where is projected, perceived and wooed that greater destiny which is its program, the mainspring of its every effort, and the reason of its very being. The Fascist State is an idea which works vigorously toward its attainment, but being an idea, it transcends every present, every form defined, contingent and material. Consequently one emphasizes to the citizen his duty rather than his right and urges him to conquer himself and to seek his present interest in the future, his personal benefit in that of the *Patria*, to which he owes every sacrifice and from which he may expect every reward.¹³

The Fascist doctrine of an all-powerful State must not be confused with the outworn political theories of pre-revolutionary France. The Fascist State is not a monarchical paternalism, for its citizens are the State, and in serving the State they serve their own higher interests. Fascism is, then, a long step forward from monarchical paternalism. It is, too, its proponents believe, a great advance on democracy, which

¹³Thompson, op. cit., p. 41.

they feel has developed great errors. They hold that in a democracy the State is superimposed upon an aggregation of individuals, thus reducing it to a struggle between minor groups or interests for the controlling power. The chief objective of a democracy is the happiness of the members living at a given time; its creed is "society for the individual." Thus the rights and privileges of a citizen are paramount. In opposition to this individualistic and atomistic point of view, Fascism perceives the State as an organic whole, not in the outworn sense of a social organism, but in that of a unity which is continuous over and beyond the existence of the individual members who make it up.

Society has its own ends of preservation, expansion and improvement, quite apart from the lives of the individuals who make it up. Individuals come into existence, develop, and pass on in an unceasing procession, but society remains always identical with itself. As the Fascists compare them, the democratic or liberal view looks upon the individual as the end and society as the means, while the Fascist view considers society, that is, the State, as the end and the individual as the means.

Theoretically, the needs of society and of the individuals who make it up are identical, but in the case of war and crime, for example, the individual must be sacrificed for the group. Whereas democracy talks of the rights and privileges of the individual, Fascism talks of the right of the State and the duty of the individual. Fascism maintains that individuals have rights only insofar as these are implied in the rights of the State. The citizens of the Fascist State have economic and civil liberty as concessions of the State: not by right, but because the wealth and prosperity of the State are best served by entrusting to individual initiative economic development, production and distribution. In a democracy liberty is a principle; in Fascism it is a method. Democracy, by investing sovereignty in the people, turns the government over to men who use it to further their own interests; Fascism entrusts the government to men who rise above their own private interests and realize the collective or social will. They represent the people as a whole as the so-called democratic representatives rarely do.¹⁴

The Fascist theory of the State, as already indicated, is the basis of Gentile's educational system. The concept of nationalism is an out-

¹⁴Quoted and condensed from Thompson, op. cit., p. 41-44.

standing formative principle of his program. All his reforms stress those elements which constitute the underlying structure of nationalism: a common language, common culture, ideals, aspirations, habits, aims and purposes, and the emotional aspect of all these, which finds its highest expression in common religious beliefs.

Another important formative principle of Gentile's program is the concept of freedom. Whether the program is examined in its entirety and in its more general aspects, or studied in its minutest details, it reveals everywhere an aspiration for freedom. This freedom, however, is not the negative and abstract liberty which formerly prevailed in the schools, and which required that education be extrinsic, and that it ignore the effective reality of the pupil's consciousness. The freedom which characterizes Gentile's reform is something quite essential to the formation of consciousness itself, and implies the demand for a preparation and a guidance for living, which instead of being waived aside, obscured or belittled, must be raised from their insignificant position to the important rank that is due them. So conceived, the Italian school of today does not limit itself to the imparting of mere information and to the furnishing of cultural instruments. Its aim is to mould and fashion souls, to prepare men for the unforeseen ways of life.¹⁵

In his book *Reform of Education*, Gentile explains that the aim of education is to produce men, and to use his own words "man is unworthy of it unless he is a master of himself, capable of initiating his own acts, responsible for his acts, able to discern and assimilate the ideas which he accepts and professes, affirms and propagates, so that whatever he says, thinks, or does, really comes from him." It is the duty of every teacher, however, to arouse in his pupils interests that but for him would forever be dormant. The pupils must be directed toward an end which they would be unable to estimate properly if left alone; they must be helped to overcome the numerous obstacles that prevent their progress. "The teacher must, in short, transfuse into the pupils something of himself, and out of his own spiritual substance create the elements of the pupil's character, mind and will."

Gentile's ideas are having a tremendous influence in Italy, and seem destined to grow in importance throughout the rest of the world. Even those who disagree with his educational principles have felt

¹⁵Marraro, op. cit., p. 9-10.

their influence. H. W. Carr says of him as a world philosopher: "It is doubtful if there is a more influential teacher in the intellectual world today."¹⁶

In the United States, however, the contributions of Gentile to education are generally unknown. Only a few educators are familiar with his theories. This is explained partly by the fact that Gentile's work has been chiefly in the field of pure philosophy, and for that reason has attracted the attention of professional philosophers rather than educators, and partly by the prejudice which some educators have against metaphysical speculation. It would seem, however, that genuinely effective education must always orient itself with reference to the ideas of the great world philosophers. This type of orientation is especially needed at the present time, when the increase in the number of schools and in school attendance has made education a leading function of government.¹⁷

Gentile's task of educational reform involved radical changes in the school system of Italy. The most important of these was the institution of certain new policies recommended by Premier Mussolini. These policies are substantially as follows:¹⁸

1. Education above the elementary grade to be provided only for those who deserve it because of their merits; others must seek their secondary education in private schools. This policy is the antithesis of the democratic conception of education.

2. Students of both government and private schools to be treated like in state examinations. This policy has served to encourage the establishment of private schools.

3. Private schools to be subject to state supervision. Thus a healthful rivalry is promoted between state and private schools.

4. A government text-book to be prepared for the purpose of developing in the students a keen consciousness on the following points: (a) what the Italian people have been throughout history; (b) their contributions to all peoples in discoveries, inventions, and in the patrimony of knowledge, art and civilization; (c) the beauty and revitalization of Italy; (d) the part played by Italians scattered throughout the world.

¹⁶Thompson, op. cit., p. 2.

¹⁷Thompson, op. cit., p. 1.

¹⁸Thompson, op. cit., p. 15.

5. Admission to government secondary schools to be through examinations. This assures the privilege of an education to deserving students, and places the standards of scholarship on a high plane.

6. Elementary education to have a twofold purpose: to give a broad popular education, and to prepare for the secondary school.

7. Various types of secondary vocational and technical schools to be established to meet varying needs (industry, commerce, agriculture, etc.)

8. Universities to be coordinated and brought into harmony with the other schools.

9. The curricula of elementary and secondary schools to be thoroughly revised.

10. The *Balilla*¹⁹ and *Avanguardisti*²⁰ to conduct the extra-curricular activities which the schools could not carry out.

11. An Italian Academy to be created as a tribute to higher culture, science, art and letters.

Through a series of royal decrees Gentile's plan of reorganization was placed on a firm legal basis. But his reform must not be looked upon merely as the substitution of adequate school ordinances for inadequate ones; rather, it is the expression of the new cultural and spiritual trend of Italy. It augurs a complete change in national ideals and bears witness to the new ethical and cultural consciousness that has been shaping itself in the country since the beginning of the present century.

Croce has given us an excellent summary of Gentile's services to education. He says: "Indeed, we owe it to Gentile that Italian pedagogy has attained in the present day a simplicity and a depth of concepts unknown elsewhere. In Italy, not educational science alone, but the practice of it and its political aspects have been thoroughly recast and amply developed. And this, too, is due pre-eminently to the work of Gentile. His authority, therefore, is powerfully felt in schools of all grades, for he has lived intensely the life of the school and loves it dearly."²¹

¹⁹Organization of boys between the ages of 8 and 14 years.

²⁰Organization of boys between the ages of 14 and 18 years.

²¹Gentile, G., *Reform of Education*. Introduction by Benedetto Croce, p. ix.

CHAPTER III.

ORGANIZATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Central Administration

The entire educational system of Italy, with the exception of a few special schools, such as the military schools, is controlled by the Ministry of National Education, whose present organization was determined by the Royal decree of July 16, 1923, No. 1753, and the following successive modifications:

1. The Royal decree of June 7, 1926, No. 944, establishing a Department for Academies and Libraries.
2. The Royal decree-law of June 17, 1928, No. 1814, organizing a Department for Technical Vocational Education.
3. The Royal decree-law of December 2, 1928, No. 2644, establishing an Inspectorship for the Institutes of Education, and for the standardized and private classical, scientific and normal high schools.
4. The Royal decree of December 22, 1932, No. 1735, reorganizing the advisory bodies.

At the head of the Ministry of National Education is the Minister of National Education, who is appointed by the Government. Music and art schools, universities, and higher institutions of learning are under the direct jurisdiction of the Ministry. All other types and grades of schools are controlled by the Ministry through educational supervisors, of whom there are nineteen, one for each region. The regional supervisor is assisted by a high school and a professional school board, and by an elementary school council. The Minister has more power and responsibility in educational matters than any single school executive in the United States holding a similar office. Scattered throughout the entire body of the school law there appear many provisions covering his numerous responsibilities and legal obligations.

With this officer rests the appointment of his division and bureau chiefs, and his clerical and professional staff, including all teachers. In him is vested the responsibility for the organization of the entire school system. Under his direction courses of study for all schools are prepared, and through supervisors appointed by him their use is enforced.

The work of the Ministry is divided into six departments and two inspectorships. The departments are: 1) elementary education; 2) technical high schools; 3) classical, scientific and normal high schools; 4) higher education; 5) the antiquities and fine arts; and 6) academies, libraries and personnel. The two inspectorships are 1) the Central Bureau for General and Personnel Matters; 2) the Inspectorship for the institutes of education and for the standardized and private classical, scientific and normal schools. At the head of each department and inspectorship is a Director General.

There are, in addition, nine councils and commissions connected with the Central Administration. These are: 1) The Administrative Council of the Ministry; 2) the Disciplinary Commission for Personnel; 3) the Administrative Council for Subordinate Personnel; 4) the Higher Council of National Education; 5) the Higher Council of Antiquities and Fine Arts; 6) the Advisory Board for the Preservation of Natural Beauty; 7) the Central Commission for Libraries; 8) the Commission on Appeals and Disciplinary Trials of High School Teachers; 9) the Commission on Appeals of Elementary School Teachers.

The most important of these groups is the Higher Council of National Education, whose jurisdiction, originally limited to higher education, has been extended to include every type and grade of school. It is composed of six sections: 1) higher education; 2) classical, scientific and normal institutes; 3) technical high schools and institutes; 4) elementary education; 5) artistic education; 6) nautical education.

The Council has fifty-two members who are known as counsellors. They are appointed by royal decree on the proposal of the Minister, who selects them from categories of persons established by law. In addition to these members, the Secretary of the National Fascist Party is an ex-officio member of the Council. The Council is presided over by the Minister, or by the Under-Secretary of State for National Educa-

tion. The Minister appoints from among the counsellors a vice-president, who is, ex-officio, president of the section to which he belongs. In all other cases, the Minister appoints the president of each section from among the members of the same section.

Each section has an executive committee. In the first section this is composed of the president of the section and five counsellors, and in the others, of the president of the section and three consellers.

The first section of the Higher Council, in charge of matters pertaining to higher education, is composed of seventeen counsellors, selected by the Minister as follows:

a) twelve from among the full professors of royal universities and royal institutes of higher education, and from among persons of distinguished scientific achievements who are especially qualified in matters related to the organization of higher education.

b) three from among six full or extraordinary professors, or from among private docents of royal universities and royal institutes of higher learning, designated by the Secretary of the National Fascist Party.

c) one from among three members of the Royal Italian Academy designated by its President.

d) one from among three persons designated by the President of the National Research Council.

The Director General of Higher Education is a member of the first section and has the deciding vote; likewise, the other directors general are members of the sections, councils, or committees, under their jurisdiction.

In special cases the Minister may call a meeting of two or more sections or committees of the Higher Council.

All advisory bodies give opinions on all matters specifically referred to them by law, or submitted to them by the Minister of National Education.

The following is then the present organization of the Ministry of National Education:¹

Minister of National Education

Under-Secretary of State for National Education

Cabinet of the Minister

Office of the Under-Secretary of State for National Education

¹An outline of the work and activity of each department, section and council is given in Appendix A.

ORGANIZATION

Administrative Council of the Ministry
 Disciplinary Commission for Personnel
 Administrative Council for Subordinate Personnel
 Higher Council of National Education

Section I: Higher education

Section II: Classical, scientific and normal high schools
 and educational institutes

Section III: Technical high schools

Section IV: Elementary education

Section V: Artistic education

Section VI: Nautical education

Higher Council of Antiquities and Fine Arts

Section I: Archaeology

Section II: Medieval and modern art

Section III: Contemporary art

Section IV: Musical and dramatic arts

Central Board for Historical Studies

Advisory Board for the Preservation of Natural Beauty

Central Library Commission

Commission on Appeals and Disciplinary Trials of High
 School Teachers

Section I: Personnel of classical, scientific and normal
 institutes and of educational institutions

Section II: Personnel of technical high schools

Commission on Appeals of Elementary School Teachers

Department of Higher Education

Division I: General affairs; personnel

Division II: Administration of universities and higher insti-
 tutes

Division III: Administration and work of scientific and cul-
 tural institutes; foundations; gifts and legacies; edu-
 cational supervision

Department of Classical, Scientific and Normal High School Edu-
 cation and of Educational Institutes

Division I: General affairs; private instruction; organization
 of educational institutes.

Division II: Royal schools; establishment and administra-

tion; pupils; foundations; qualifying competitive examinations

Office of Competitive and Qualifying Examinations

Division III: Personnel of classical lyceums and gymnasia
and of scientific lyceums; non-teaching personnel

Department of Technical High School Education

Division I: Commercial education

Division II: Industrial and vocational education

Division III: Agrarian education

Division IV: Nautical education

Bureau for the competitive qualifying examinations.

Department of Elementary Education

Division I: General matters

Division II: General organization of school services of the
central supervisors

Division III: Kindergarten instruction and educational welfare institutes

Division IV: Hygiene, pensions, supplies, missions

General Superintendancy of Vocational High Schools

Division I: Legislation, general affairs, accounts

Division II: Personnel

Central Bureau of Accounts

Special office (directly dependent upon the Chief Accountant)

General catalogue and registry of current accounts

Division I: salaries and awards

Division II: salaries and awards

The Department of Elementary Education was formerly composed of seven divisions with powers which were often conflicting and ambiguously defined, so that it often happened that the same work was being done simultaneously by different bureaus. This meant a considerable loss of time and effort, as shown by the frequent delays in the performance of simple tasks and the uncertain relations existing between the Central Administration, the local bureaus and the subordinate staff. The decree of June 28, 1923, reduced the seven divisions to four, each enjoying full autonomy and having clearly defined duties. It is interesting to note that the four divisions, with a greatly reduced personnel, have accomplished much more work than was possible under the old régime with seven divisions.

Local Administration

Until 1911 elementary education was the responsibility of the various local communities, which dealt with it as well as they could, financing it from their own treasuries. In each province the National Government maintained a royal educational supervisor who was assisted by a locally chosen school council and by state inspectors of schools who were also maintained in the various provinces.

As a result of the Daneo and Credaro Laws of 1910 and 1911, all elementary schools were coordinated in each province under one state office. Local authority over education was discontinued, and the provincial supervisor became head of the school system in the province. Such local communities (towns, villages, etc.) as were allowed to retain their authority over their school were obliged to support their institutions without any government aid. Other changes introduced by the law of 1911 were:

- 1) Increase in the number of state supervisors
- 2) Establishment of government school councils
- 3) Extension of the elementary school course to include the sixth grade
- 4) Establishment of "school patrons"
- 5) Imposition on local governmental units of the obligation to contribute to the government educational fund.

But while this ordinance stimulated efforts to raise the position of the elementary school, to improve the condition of teachers, and to intensify the campaign against illiteracy, it was unsatisfactory in other respects. In addition to the provincial educational supervisors, the law created school councils composed of elective representatives of various interests. The duties of the school councils were to administer their own budgets and to discuss and take action on educational matters. Thus numerous local parliaments were brought into being in which petty personal interests often prevailed over the ideals of the school. It was difficult for even educational experts to define the position of these bodies in relation to the school administration. Was the council an organ of the State, or was it a school consortium? The answers were unsatisfactory, though the school soon became the scene of many electoral campaigns.

The Fascist Government was faced with the problem of reorganizing the local administrative educational bureaus. Some districts had

far more educational supervisors than were necessary, and many of these officers had no understanding of the local school needs. Because of the numerous difficulties arising from this situation, the Royal decree of December 31, 1922, No. 1679, abolished the central and provincial administrative technical personnel, and transferred the work of the former provincial educational supervisors to nineteen royal educational supervisors, each of whom was placed in charge of an educational district. The boundaries of each educational district, which usually included several provinces, were fixed by the ministerial decrees of June 18 and August 25, 1923. In establishing these boundaries special attention was given to the peculiar geographical and climatic conditions of the different regions.

A Royal decree of November 3, 1923, No. 2453, fixed the powers of the local school authorities. The royal educational supervisor was designated as the chief officer of the local school administration. He is thus the immediate representative of the Minister of National Education. He is appointed by the Minister from among persons connected with the central and local school departments, or from among the principals and teachers of government high schools, or even from among persons not connected with the administration of the State. The term "supervisor" is somewhat misleading as applied to this officer. In reality a supervisor is the business and administrative agent of the Minister of National Education. He supervises all public and private schools; he promotes all measures tending to improve elementary education. His duty is to see that the classes proceed in accordance with the printed schedules and on time with respect to the several subdivisions of the course of study. In other words, it is his responsibility to keep the educational machine in smooth running order and to carry out instructions. The work of the supervisor, therefore, is primarily inspectorial.

Assisting the royal educational supervisors in the local administration of schools are the School and Disciplinary councils. The membership of the School Council has been reduced from fifteen to seven; and it now includes the royal supervisor, who is its president, a principal of a secondary school, four other educational experts, and a health officer. The members are appointed by the Minister, hold office for two years, and may be reappointed. The School Council is an advisory body entrusted with the control of all the provincial schools, and is empowered to deal with all general matters pertaining to the devel-

opment of national culture. The Council meets twice a month principally to decide on the establishment, distribution and discontinuance of schools; and to consider leaves of absence, dismissal of teachers, transfers and promotions. The supervisor has the right to submit to the Council all business which he deems necessary.

The Disciplinary Council is composed of five members: the president, two members of the School Council, a professor from a government high school, and either a municipal educational director or a regular elementary teacher from a classified school, depending on whether the defendant is a municipal educational director or an elementary school teacher. This Council considers questions concerning the discipline of teachers and municipal educational directors and inspectors. Its powers are clearly defined, thus eliminating the doubts which had previously existed in the application of the law of 1911. The members of the Disciplinary Council are nominated by the Minister, hold office for two years, and may be reappointed.

The educational district is subdivided into inspection districts and educational areas. An inspection district is under the jurisdiction of a royal school inspector; an educational area is under a government educational director. School inspectors and government educational directors are appointed on the basis of competitive examinations, and are under the direct authority of the royal educational supervisor. In addition, the Minister has a corps of technical inspectors for the supervision of schools under the university grade. He may appoint inspectors for secondary and vocational schools from among university professors or principals and teachers of high schools.

The powers and jurisdiction of educational inspectors and directors in charge of the local supervision and administration of the schools have been clearly defined. The royal school inspector supervises the schools in his jurisdiction; he authorizes the opening of private schools and also issues certificates of service. The government educational director visits the schools, compiles reports on teachers, appoints teachers to the various classes, prepares the school calendar and appoints the examining commissions. In autonomous municipalities the administration of the school is entrusted to a municipal educational director, who is assisted by divisional directors, one for every thirty classes.

Under the new régime there has been a decentralization of the immense administrative machine which had hitherto hindered the dev-

elopment not only of elementary education but of secondary and higher education as well. Many of the duties formerly performed by the Minister personally are given over to the supervisors. On many questions the pronouncements of supervisors are final, e.g., leaves of absence, certificates of service, appointment of substitutes, etc. They may, for sanitary or other serious reasons, order the closing of schools, and may also appoint, in agreement with the prefect, school commissioners in municipalities which do not fulfill the school obligations. The school inspectors and government directors exercise powers which were formerly held by the School Bureau.

Within proper spheres, therefore, the authority of each officer has been increased so as to remove the obstacles that formerly made it impossible for officials to take immediate action in urgent cases. It is characteristic of this somewhat bureaucratic system that some of the most highly gifted Italian educators are employed by the Government as inspectors and in the administrative end of the work. Administratively, this system is by no means simple, but the whole complex machinery works because everybody's zone is carefully defined and there is no debatable ground on which rival authorities can wrangle.

Transfer of all Schools to the State

The first of January 1934, is a memorable date in the history of Italian education. On that day all the elementary schools, including the special schools, were turned over to the State. This step completed and perfected the reforms of 1923.

The Consolidated Law (*Testo Unico*) of September 14, 1931, No. 1175, dealing with local finance, provided that beginning with January 1, 1932, all elementary schools that were still being administered by municipalities were to be transferred to the State, and the municipalities were therefore to be exonerated from the payment of all expenses for the teaching and administrative personnel. The law also provided for the general standardization of the salaries of the entire teaching personnel.

In order to study in detail the consequences of the provision of this law regarding teachers' salaries, the Ministry of National Education postponed the enforcement of the law for two years. Regulations contained in the Royal decree of December 31, 1931, No. 1804, and in Article 5 of the Decree-Law of December 31, 1931, No. 1756,

stipulated that the transfer of elementary schools and of teachers and directors should be effected without interfering with the efficiency and development of the school, and without jeopardizing the interests of the teachers.

Administrative Reform of July 1, 1933

Certain important changes in the administration of the educational system were established by the Royal decree of July 1, 1933, No. 786. The decree created five salary categories for teachers, determined in accordance with the population of the municipality in which they are employed, as ascertained by the census of April 21, 1931.

Each salary schedule provides for an initial salary and eight successive increases, the first of which is to be applied after three years of service. The other increases come at intervals of four years, so that the maximum salary may be reached after 31 years of service. Teachers transferred through competitive examinations to a city in a higher category will receive the salary in force in the new locality for teachers having the same period of service. Teachers who were receiving the maximum salary under the former system, were to continue to receive that salary under the State.

The five categories of teachers with their respective salaries as established by the decree are as follows:

Category I: municipalities having more than 800,000 inhabitants (Rome, Milan, Naples). Initial salary, 8,000 lire; maximum salary (after 31 years), 13,500 lire.

Category II: municipalities having a population of 500,000 to 800,000 (Genoa and Turin). Initial salary, 7,300 lire; maximum salary, 12,000 lire.

Category III: municipalities having a population of 100,000 to 500,000 (in all, 17 municipalities are included). Initial salary, 6,900 lire; maximum salary, 12,000 lire.

Category IV: (70 other municipalities and chief cities of provinces having less than 100,000 inhabitants). Initial salary, 6,500 lire; maximum salary, 11,300 lire.

Category V: Small municipalities (all the other remaining 7,218 municipalities of the Kingdom whose schools were formerly administered by the royal educational supervisors). Initial salary, 5,900 lire; maximum salary, 10,000 lire.

The foregoing salary schedules are subject to the 12 per cent reduction, which effects salaries of all government employees. The decree introduced an important change concerning the results in competitive examinations for teaching positions. It provided that henceforth successful candidates shall have the right to an appointment until the list has been fully exhausted, even if, new competitive examinations are held in the meantime. Thus, successful candidates will be sure of eventual appointment.

The decree prohibits the decrease and regulates the increase of teachers (Article 31). It provides for the maintenance and development of educational institutions and services which still remain the function of municipalities, i.e., kindergartens, after-school activities, health service, summer camps, etc. (Article 32). The Ministry may authorize the municipalities to entrust these services to the direction of the royal school inspector in charge of the supervisory work in the elementary schools.

Because of the peculiar characteristics and political importance of the City of Rome, the decree provided that a Special Royal Bureau for Elementary Schools be organized there, to take charge of all the school services of the Capital, both municipal and State (Article 14).

The decree also introduced drastic changes in the supervisory services of the elementary school. It ordered that the official lists of directors and inspectors be combined, though their duties and responsibilities should remain distinct. It states that the *circoli direttivi* (educational circles) may be entrusted either to directors or inspectors, while the inspection areas must be reserved for first and chief inspectors only. In cases where an inspector is in charge of the administration of the schools in a chief city of a province, he may be assisted in his work by one educational director or more, these to be appointed on the basis of public competitive examinations.

It provided that school inspectors be appointed from candidates passing a promotion examination, for which only educational directors are eligible.

These are the fundamental lines of the recent school legislation which has resulted in the transfer of over 26,000 teachers and 750 municipal directors of various categories to the rolls of the State. This change calls for additional appropriation of more than 240,000,000 lire annually by the Ministry of National Education. This sum is exclusive of the expenditures of over one billion lire by the royal educa-

tional supervisors for the elementary schools. These figures are sufficient to give an idea of the enormous importance of the elementary school under the Fascist régime.

Expenditures for Education Under the New Plan of Organization

The following table shows the expenditures of the Ministry of National Education for recent years, classified into expenditures for elementary education, secondary schools and physical education, and higher education. It is seen that during the five-year period 1928-29, 1933-34 there was a substantial increase in the total appropriations of the Ministry, especially for elementary education.

Expenditures of the Ministry of National Education

	1928-29	1930-31	1932-33	1933-34
	(in thousand lire)			
Total	1,066,693	1,113,157	1,330,497	1,321,477
Expenditures for elementary schools	783,599	820,693	1,037,746	1,027,866
Expenditures for secondary schools and physical education	199,487	189,753	189,314	192,854
Expenditures for higher education	83,608	102,712	103,437	100,757

Students in the Various Grades of Instruction

There has been a large increase in the number of students in all grades of instruction in Italy during the Fascist régime. The total enrolment in the elementary schools has increased from 3,748,354 in 1921-22 to 4,621,553 in 1933-34, or 23.4 per cent.

Enrolment in government secondary schools increased, during the same period, from 375,556 to 493,022 pupils, equivalent to 31.2 per cent.

The number of students in the universities and higher institutes has remained stationary during this period. However, it must be

noted that though there was a substantial decrease in the early years of Fascism, there has been a constant increase since 1926-27, which has brought the enrolment in universities and higher institutes to the level it was in pre-Fascist days.

The following table shows the number of students classified according to grade of instruction: 1921-22—1933-34:

Grade of Instruction	1921-22	1926-27	1930-31	1933 34
Elementary Education				
Government				
Elementary schools	3,748,354 ²	3,493,715	4,382,185	4,621,553
Adult Education (Balilla)	—	71,930	220,714	247,177
Total	3,748,354 ²	3,565,645	4,062,899	4,868,730
Private	—	140,841	167,999	142,331
Secondary Education				
Government				
Classical	77,709	71,159	81,802	122,156
Scientific & Normal	92,692	27,992	38,086	76,132
Technical & Vocational	187,919	139,699	186,246	283,042
Art	17,236	14,622	12,867	11,692
Total	375,556	253,472	319,001	493,022
Private	54,934	43,497	44,953	43,909 ³
Higher Education ⁴				
University (including private)	36,254	30,688	30,887	37,154
Institutes	18,192	12,649	15,375	17,150
Total	54,446	43,337	46,262	54,304

²Includes 397,610 pupils in kindergartens which were largely private institutions.

³For 1932-33.

⁴Higher education, except for the five private universities, is imparted in government institutions.

CHAPTER IV.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Illiteracy

Preliminary to the discussion of the elementary schools proper should come a consideration of illiteracy, a national problem inextricably bound up with them, and largely dependent for its solution upon their progress and betterment. One of the gravest misfortunes inherited by the young Kingdom of Italy from former bad governments was the high percentage of illiteracy. However, this decreased from 68.8 per cent in 1871, the year of the first census after the unification of the country, to 21 per cent in 1931, when out of a total population of nearly 42 million, approximately 7,500,000 over six years of age were illiterate.

It will be noted that the percentage of illiteracy increases from north to south. Southern Italy, and especially the regions of Calabria, Lucania, Sicily, Puglie, and Sardinia show the highest percentages of illiterates; the plateau and mountain provinces—Venezia Tridentina, Piedmont, Lombardy, and Liguria—the lowest. Italy's great problem, therefore, is that of educating the South, where there still exist regions with as high as 48 per cent of illiteracy.

The following table gives for each regional division of the country the percentage of illiteracy in the population over six years of age, according to the census of 1871, 1901, 1921, and 1931:

Regions	Census							
	1871		1901		1921		1931	
	Per	Cent	Per	Cent	Per	Cent	Per	Cent
<i>Northern Italy</i>								
Piedmont	42		18		7		4	
Liguria	56		27		10		7	
Lombardy	45		22		9		5	
Venezia Tridentina	—		—		2		2	
Venetia	65		35		15		11	
Venezia Giulia & Zara	—		—		15		12	
Emilia	72		46		21		15	
<i>Central Italy</i>								
Tuscany	68		48		28		18	
Marches	79		63		35		26	
Umbria	80		60		37		26	
Latium	68		44		26		19	
<i>Southern Italy</i>								
Abruzzi & Molise	85		70		45		34	
Campania	80		65		41		35	
Puglie	84		70		49		39	
Lucania	88		75		52		46	
Calabrie	87		79		53		48	
<i>Islands</i>								
Sicily	85		71		49		40	
Sardinia	86		68		49		36	
Total Kingdom	69		48		27		21	

Some of the general reasons given for the prevalence of illiteracy in Italy have been: first, the lack of continuity of educational policy under the old régime, due to the fact that the office of Minister of Public Instruction was a political position. There have been sixty-two ministers of education since 1861, and only a few have been educators. Second, the lack of co-operation in pre-Fascist days between the central administration and the local authorities. For instance, in the poorer communities where the labor of children in the fields was needed, the mayor, whose re-election depended upon the popular vote, often failed even to list the children of school age. Third, lack of funds, resulting in the shortage of suitable school buildings. Since the nation was overburdened with debt and lacking in national wealth, the educational system did not receive the financial support necessary to its development. The rural communities, for example, required all

children to attend school, but they could not obtain government funds to establish a school unless at least 40 children, ranging from 4 to 12 years of age, could be collected to attend it. This was often difficult, as in many localities there were great tracts of sparsely inhabited country, with small holdings dotted here and there at great distances from one another, and practically no roads. It was therefore impossible for outlying districts to furnish a sufficient number of schools for all children to receive the normal elementary school education.

External, material conditions in the schools have been enormously ameliorated since the inception of the Fascist régime. For example, in the forty-four years from 1878 to 1922 the Government had accorded the municipalities 304,000,000 lire to be used for the construction of elementary schools, while during the first ten years of the Fascist State, 346,000,000 lire were appropriated for the same purpose. This sum does not include several hundred million lire spent by the large cities, from municipal appropriations, for the construction of school buildings.

An estimate of the success of the Fascist Government in bringing about increased school attendance and a consequent reduction in the percentage of illiteracy may be made from the following table, which shows the percentage of illiteracy by age groups, as revealed by the 1931 census:

Per Cent Illiteracy

Age groups	Male	Female	Total
6-9 yrs.	14	15	14
10-14 yrs.	8	9	9
15-19 yrs.	11	12	12
20-29 yrs.	12	15	13
30-39 yrs.	14	21	18
40-49 yrs.	19	29	24
50-64 yrs	28	40	34
over 65 yrs	41	57	49
unknown age	41	53	47
Total	17	24	21

It is seen, however, that in 1931, 14 per cent of the children between six and nine years of age, and 9 per cent of the children between ten and fourteen years of age—in other words, 23 per cent of

the children of school age—had not yet been made to go to school.

For many years effort has been made in Italy to fight illiteracy by adult education. Isolated action to lessen illiteracy, and at the same time to better conditions among the poor by rooting out disease, teaching the simple principles of hygiene, and training in some means of earning a living locally, had been undertaken on individual and group initiative before 1922, and much, in fact, had been accomplished in this way. On the whole, however, progress was slow. Until the Gentile reform, education in general had been extremely inadequate, and this, coupled with the Italian's characteristic lack of a conscious need of anything outside the joys of family life, had resulted in indifference to adult education of a cultural type. Where a demand for instruction arose, it was of a more practical nature, entailing the acquirement of more perfect craftsmanship or the better understanding of a trade for the purpose of material advancement. On the other hand, the average Italian is so susceptible to atmosphere, so ready to respond to a spirit of comradeship, that the work done with the object of material advancement became the productive soil for the development of personality, and a road was constructed thereby to self-expression through what would otherwise have been mechanical work undertaken merely for the earning of a livelihood.

It is important to note that adult education has been conceived and approached in Italy in an entirely different way from that followed in the United States, England, Scandinavia and other countries. Italy tackles the problem lower down in the age scale, beginning with adolescents, with the post-school boy and girl. It would appear that countries most advanced in adult education have rather overlooked the ages between 14 and 18—the most impressionable and critical and, at the same time, the essentially productive and important—leaving an educational gap, so to say. Italy has been filling that gap, by beginning extension education with the younger groups and working out a program of adult education to continue from the point where adolescent education leaves off.

The Government is directing much attention to vocational and technical schools for the training of skilled workers. In Italy these schools have a peculiar character indicated by their name. They are called *scuole professionali*, professional schools. They will be discussed at length in Chapter VI (page 123). It is sufficient here to

state that they are not specialized training centres for one or another trade, but inspiring places of many trades, where boys and girls have food for the imagination, stimulus for latent energy, and, above all, scope for the development of inherent talent, all of which is given full play before the profession as such is fixed and the actual training begun.

A discussion of adult education in Italy will not be complete without reference to the work of the *università popolare*, comparable to America's university extension departments. In the year 1898, a group of young enthusiasts in Florence conceived the plan of spreading education by means of illustrated lectures. For this purpose they formed a society known as *Pro-Cultura*. The original plan was to give instruction to young men and women who had already completed their secondary school course, but who were unable to attend a university. Later the society extended its program so as to reach the working classes. Twofold activities were undertaken: 1) daily lectures for the members; 2) Sunday concerts and popular lectures for the working classes. During the first year of its activities, the institute of Florence succeeded in drawing 500 working men to its Sunday lectures and concerts. The success of the work in Florence encouraged other communities to offer similar opportunities to their residents. Thus Bologna, Milan, Turin, Brescia, and Venice soon founded extension departments.

In 1903, a preliminary congress of the so-called "popular universities" was held at Milan, and in the following year the First National Congress was held at Florence, at which a motion was passed providing for a federation of "popular universities." By 1924, the number of these institutions had grown to sixty-one. Some, as the one in Florence, offered general courses to the middle classes on week days; others, and these represented the majority, were institutes of popular lectures. In large cities these lectures were attended by middle-class workers who wished to acquire a general education. The "popular university" has served, as in so many other countries, to revive, stimulate, and furnish knowledge for those already partially informed.

In 1919 the Government attempted to organize the "popular universities" on a uniform basis; but the plan soon filtered out under bureaucratic mismanagement, and Benedetto Croce, Minister of Public Instruction in 1920, on that account, prohibited the use of public funds for these universities. But in 1921, a fresh movement for co-operation

among the various societies interested in this movement, coinciding with the government's determination to cope adequately with the problem of adult education, resulted in the organization of a federation of associations devoted to popular education. This became known as the *Opera contro l'Analfabetismo*. It was governed by a council representative of all the federated associations and the Government, and received financial assistance from the Government. The plan of organization was a satisfactory one, as much liberty was allowed each association in the execution of its work, while co-operation strengthened this work. The Government control was comparatively slight, and the state subsidy a useful asset.

In October 1923 the *Opera contro l'Analfabetismo* developed into a committee of representatives of the various associations at work in the fight against illiteracy. It concentrated its efforts on the *Associazione per gl'Interessi del Mezzogiorno* (Association for the Interest of the South), in the extreme south of Italy. Its activities were varied according to climatic conditions, the state of the roads, the means of transport, and innumerable other considerations. Since there are few big towns or cities in that part of the country, the problem in the main was that of dealing adequately with rural districts, with a population of land laborers, shepherds, fishermen and the like, many of whom were entirely without desire to learn to read or write. Indeed, they had no use for these accomplishments unless peculiar circumstances arose, such as the need of reading an emigrant's letter or of signing a receipt for a pension. Reading and writing were considered unnecessary luxuries, and were even thought to be the machinations of the Evil One; something at any rate to be avoided. Cases were reported of parents destroying the lesson books belonging to sons or daughters and imposing every possible obstacle to prevent the attendance of these young people at evening or day schools. More important, therefore, than the mere opening of schools and the provision of educational opportunities in these remote districts was the task of stimulating a desire for the advantages offered.¹

Until three years ago the Fascist Government conducted a special

¹See the World Association for Adult Education—*Adult education in Italy*, etc. London, Nov. 1924, 32pp. Bulletin XXII. and *Adult education in Calabria, Sicily, & Sardinia*, etc. London, Feb. 1925 32pp. (Bulletin XXIII).

campaign against illiteracy in the regions of Campania and Molise through the organization of rural schools administered by the *Consorzio Nazionale di Emigrazione e Lavoro*, (National Consortium of Emigration and Labor). Rural schools have also been operated by the *Balilla* Institute, especially in Calabria, Sicily, and Sardinia. The following table summarizes the work done by these associations in their fight against illiteracy during the year 1932-33:

	Day Schools	Evening Schools	Holiday Schools	Total
Schools administered by Nat'l. Consortium of Emigration & Labor	480	242	—	722
Pupils attending these schools	16,833	9,498	—	26,331
Schools administered by National <i>Balilla</i> Institute	925	307	72	1,304
Pupils attending these schools	36,211	13,895	2,444	52,550

In 1933 the activities of the National Consortium in the operation of the rural schools in Campania and Molise were taken over by the National *Balilla* Institute. All adult education is now administered by the Institute. In 1933-34 the total number of schools in operation was 2,162, and the number of pupils in attendance was 80,999. In addition there were 236 vocational schools with an attendance of 9,910 pupils.

Kindergartens

Elementary education in Italy, according to the Royal decree of October 1, 1923, is divided into three grades: the kindergarten for pupils from four to seven years of age, the elementary school, consisting of five classes, and the three-year supplementary vocational courses. It is important to note that now, for the first time in the history of Italian education, kindergarten instruction is considered an essential part of the elementary course. The Gentile reform, in fact, established the principle that children who have reached their fourth year should begin their education by attending kindergartens, or, as they are more appropriately called, schools of preparatory grade. Before 1923 the Italian kindergarten, like the French, did not offer anything remotely related to the elaborate kindergarten system of the United States, but

did take care of and more or less instruct young children for the school day. Most of the kindergartens were indeed merely homes for the custody of groups of children during the day. As a result of the Gentile reform, however, marked progress has been made in this field of education. This is shown in the better adjustment of the kindergarten to the school as a whole; in the improvement in the training of kindergarten teachers; and in the continued increase in enrolment in the kindergartens of the country.

Prior to the reform the work of the kindergarten had no definite relation to that of the grades that followed. There was a definite reason for this. The kindergarten illustrated a conception of education quite new, that of guidance of children's interests and activities at the successive stages of their development. Its work was therefore in marked contrast to that of the primary grades, which was still conceived of as the mastery of the tools of learning. These conflicting aims made difficult the unification of the work of the two institutions. The complete adjustment of the kindergarten to the school is now shown in the unified kindergarten-primary curriculum. Formerly, the kindergarten teacher had her outline of work, or program, and the primary teacher her course of study. Both were little more than statements of things to be done, or subjects to be taught during a given period. Both were equally formal. The new educational objectives set up during the past few years, with the broadening of the elementary school curriculum and the changes in method which these entailed, called a new type of elementary education into existence. With a clearer understanding of the new educational ideals and their implications for the work of the early years, the essential unity of the aims and methods of the kindergarten and primary grades became apparent, and the new courses of study give evidence of this.

The advance of the science of psychology in recent years has caused great changes in educational theory and practice. The conception of education as the guidance of children's interests and activities is being gradually accepted as the true one, not for the kindergarten only but, in a greater or lesser degree, for the school as a whole. In consequence, many changes have been made in the organization and equipment of the elementary school. Not only have play and games and music and art in their several aspects been added to the curriculum, but playgrounds, gymnasiums, workshops, and art studios have been provided in order that activities along these lines may be carried out

as effectively as possible. The methods, too, have been changed to allow opportunities for initiative and self-expression.

In the kindergartens of Italy the traditional methods of instruction (Froebel, Agazzi) predominate. Of 9,371 kindergartens functioning in 1931-32, 2,017 or 22 per cent were of the Froebel type, 1,924 or 20 per cent of the Agazzi type, 1,202 or 13 per cent of the Aporti type, 421 or 4 per cent of the Montessori type, and 3,807, or 41 per cent of other types. It is necessary to point out, however, that while the Montessori system as a whole is not widespread, its cardinal idea, under the name of "individual work," is being extended in infants' schools throughout the country. Kindergartens using the Froebel method are increasing, while the Agazzi schools are decreasing. A large percentage of the schools use no definite method. In view of the increasing number of young women who are at present studying in the method schools created by the reform of 1923, it is hoped that most kindergartens will soon adopt a definite plan of instruction. Teaching in the preparatory grades will become more efficient with the increase in the number of teachers properly trained in appropriate schools.

The new program for kindergartens provides for thirty-five hours of instruction a week, based on a daily session of six hours. Fewer hours are allowed, however, but they cannot be less than the average stipulated for the elementary grades. The program for the kindergarten classes is as follows:

<i>Subjects</i>	<i>Hours per week</i>
Religion	1
Singing, drawing, recitation	4
Recreation	6
Gardening, gymnastics, hygiene, etc.	24
Total	35

The number of kindergartens and the number of children enrolled have almost doubled during the period 1921-22|1933-34. In 1921-22 there were 5,902 kindergartens with an enrolment of 397,610 children from three to six years of age. In 1933-34 there were 9,218 kindergartens with 705,452 pupils. The recent increase in the number of kindergartens is especially noticeable in Piedmont, Liguria, and

Lombardy. The movement has aroused considerable interest in the South, especially in Sicily where the number of these schools has more than doubled.

As might be expected, the geographical distribution of kindergartens in Italy is not uniform. The greatest number and the highest attendance are in Lombardy and Piedmont; then come Venetia, Emilia, Latium, Campania, and Tuscany; and at the bottom of the list are Lucania, Umbria and Molise. Regions that have the smallest number of kindergartens in proportion to the population also have a large number of pupils per teacher. The extremes are 45 pupils per teacher in Liguria as compared to 101 pupils per teacher in Sardinia. The average for Italy is 69 pupils per teacher. These figures do not take into consideration the work performed by the assistants of whom there were 4,308 in 1933-34.

The lack of uniformity in the administration of kindergartens makes it difficult for the Ministry of National Education to exercise any control over them, although a technical and pedagogic supervision is maintained. In 1931-32, of 9,371 kindergartens, 3,023 were established as chartered institutions, 3,540 were dependent on chartered associations, and 2,808 were privately administered. The fact that more than two-thirds of the kindergartens are either chartered institutions or dependent on chartered associations is favorable to the system, inasmuch as recognition is granted only to those schools which have succeeded in obtaining a certain minimum capital fund, and which have, in addition, developed an efficient organization and an administration sufficiently sound to ensure the future of the school. Recent statistics show that the percentage of kindergartens established as chartered institutions or supported by chartered associations has decidedly increased, whereas there has been a reduction in the number of private kindergartens. Italian educators view this as a very promising development, and it is being encouraged by the local authorities because it removes the kindergartens from the precarious conditions of private life, and gives them the prestige and security that public institutes enjoy.

The regions having the largest number of kindergartens depending on chartered associations are Latium, Sicily, and Tuscany. In 1921 Latium had 123 such kindergartens; by 1931, the number had increased to 378. More than 100 per cent increase in the number of

kindergartens controlled by chartered associations have been noted in the following regions: Liguria, Venetia, Emilia, Abruzzi, Molise, Puglia, Basilicata, and Sardinia. These statistics bear witness to the new spirit of initiative which animates the municipalities today, and encourage one to hope that in the near future every municipality will have its kindergarten.

The number of children enrolled in kindergartens is not as large as is desirable. At the present time only about one-third (705,452 in 1933-34) of the two million children between the ages of three and six attend these schools. No extensive improvement can be expected until attendance is made compulsory by law. Under present economic conditions, neither the Central Government nor the chartered associations are in a position to place heavy burdens upon their budgets, a necessary condition of making kindergarten instruction compulsory and free. But while it is not yet practical to compel all children to attend the preparatory grade, it is possible for every municipality to have at least one kindergarten, especially now that the municipalities have been practically freed from the burden of supporting the elementary schools proper.

Only about thirty per cent of the kindergartens offer free instruction to all children. The great majority of them charge a small fee to children from families in moderate circumstances. Still others admit pupils on fees only. The present tendency is to charge a fee to those who can afford to pay, and to provide free instruction only to the children of the poor.

It is felt by some educators that a larger kindergarten attendance could be brought about, especially in rural sections where the need is most urgent, by supplying lunches for the children. These lunches should be served free to the poor, and sold at moderate prices to those who can afford to pay. It has been pointed out that peasants and laborers would send their children to kindergartens more readily if a hot luncheon were served at an hour during which parents are usually busy with their work in the fields or shops. The suggestion has also been made that even families in modest circumstances would gladly pay the school a small fee provided such a luncheon could be served. This system would assure the uninterrupted stay of the children in school for the entire duration of the working day. This is a very vital point on which the future of the kindergarten depends, especially in rural centers. For this reason the recent decision of the

National Institute for Maternity and Childhood (*Opera Nazionale Maternità e Infanzia*) to subsidize only those kindergartens which provide lunches was well-inspired. The Ministry of National Education has likewise decided to be more generous with kindergartens which provide this service. In recent years the Fascist Party, through the *Ente Opere Assistenziali*, has been giving aid to the kindergartens chiefly in order to enable them to provide the hot luncheon at noon.

The following table summarizes the more important facts concerning kindergarten instruction in Italy:

	Y e a r			
<i>Kindergartens</i>	1927-28	1929-30	1931-32	1933-34
Total number	8,165	9,546	9,371	9,218
Established as chartered associations	2,782	3,204	3,023	3,007
Depending on private support	3,129	3,629	2,808	—
Depending on chartered associations	2,254	2,713	3,540	—
With lunches free for all	1,155	1,043	1,441	—
With lunches free for poor	2,377	2,431	3,623	—
With lunches on payment by all	1,199	912	1,545	—
<i>Personnel</i>				
Directors	5,163	5,903	5,889	5,720
Teachers	9,051	10,851	10,469	10,168
Assistants	3,461	4,061	4,053	4,308
<i>Enrolment</i>				
Boys	332,586	367,487	358,308	347,577
Girls	336,264	382,389	367,245	357,875

It is clear from the foregoing pages that considerable progress has been made during the Fascist régime in the field of kindergarten education. Italy is still far from the goal, however, and she is cognizant of the fact that this can be attained only by assiduous and persistent efforts. Thousands of new kindergartens are still needed if all children from three to six years of age are to be cared for. But if we consider that in twelve years the number of kindergartens almost doubled, that the number of children in attendance increased from 397,610 to 705,452, that the number of teachers and directors in-

creased from 12,137 to 15,888, and that the number of municipalities with kindergartens also increased, we may be certain that Italy can look to the future with confidence. Fascism has definitely established the principle that kindergartens are not to be mere homes of custody, but real schools of preparatory grade. The budget of the Ministry of National Education provides the sum of 5,000,000 lire with which to aid existing kindergartens and help in the establishment of new ones.

Training for Kindergarten Teachers

In the training of kindergarten teachers, progress has been especially marked. It is a well-known fact that before the 1923 school reform the majority, fully 66 per cent of the teachers in kindergartens, not only did not have any academic training, but often lacked a knowledge of the fundamental principles of hygiene. In accordance with the spirit of the new laws five royal method schools for kindergarteners have been set up, and nineteen others, established by chartered associations for the training of kindergarten teachers, have been legally recognized. These schools offer a three-year course and are preparing well-trained teachers. Henceforth, kindergarten teachers will be required to have a diploma from one of the method schools. Special regulations provide that teachers without a degree, but who have had three years of satisfactory service, may present themselves forthwith to one of the method schools for the qualifying examination. It is pointed out that in this manner teachers are being encouraged to return to their studies and thus improve their preparation. Rapid special courses have been organized for the convenience of this group of teachers.

Many students have registered at the royal and approved method schools established everywhere in Italy. This has been brought about largely through the efforts of the Italian Educational Association (*Associazione Educatrice Italiana*). Summer courses have also been held in various cities, and have drawn a large attendance.

It is interesting to note that most of the students in these method courses are nuns. The religious orders have always controlled the kindergartens of Italy. During the school year 1921-22, of 12,407 kindergarten directors and teachers, 7,765 were members of religious orders. In the school year 1930-31, of 16,575 directors and teachers, 11,491, or more than two-thirds, were nuns. The offering of advanced courses in kindergarten education and the granting of degrees

in that subject have contributed materially to the progress of the kindergarten movement. Much of the kindergarten training in the past dealt with the kindergartens only and thereby prevented the graduate kindergartener from doing her best work, because she did not see her own work as a part of the whole educational process.

The following is the program of study in royal method schools for kindergarten teachers:

Subjects	Y E A R		
	I	II	III
	Hours per Week		
Italian language and literature (oral and written)	4	4	4
Child pedagogy (oral and written)	4	4	4
History and geography (oral)	2	2	2
Mathematics and natural sciences (oral)	4	3	3
Child Hygiene (oral)	2	2	2
Religion (oral)	2	2	2
Singing	2	2	2
Domestic economy and sewing, etc.	2	2	2
Plastic art and drawing	2	2	2
Practice and lectures on practice	6	7	7
Total	30	30	30

The Elementary School Curriculum

That the Italian elementary school was in need of a radical reform had long been the opinion of educators, teachers, statesmen and citizens of all classes. It was plain that education had to be adapted to practical ends, and Professor Giovanni Gentile in 1923 set himself to accomplish this. Indeed, the changes introduced in the elementary school system are of the most profound and destined to exert a decisive influence on the spiritual formation of the Italian people. Gentile considered that his first task was to reform the spirit of the teachers. These men and women, he declared, must learn that education is no mere matter of empirical rules, or even of organization, but a spiritual activity, involving the continuous self-recreation of the individual teacher. According to Gentile the school begins when man for the first time becomes aware of the existence of a store of accumulated culture. In this sense culture is "what we ourselves are making; it

is the life of our spirit." He adds: "The only culture that can be bestowed upon the spirit, the only one that admits of being concretely imparted, the only one that can be sought, because it is the only one that really exists, is idealistic culture. It is not in books, or in the brains of others. It exists in our souls as it is gradually being formed there. The idealistic conception of culture enables us to get an initial understanding of the spirituality of the school. This spirituality is definitely felt by all those who live within the class-room."

In harmony with these principles, Gentile entrusted the teacher with a large amount of liberty in working out the purpose prescribed for him. He accompanied this by greater freedom for local educational authorities, through which they could adapt the schools to the varying requirements of their neighborhoods.

The most original, the most essential, part of Gentile's reform is to be found in the programs of the elementary schools. Here the changes consist not in their having substituted an abstract program of studies for another abstract program, of having eliminated or introduced certain fixed subjects or fixed notions, or in any other external modification, but rather in their having lead the school back to its natural task, from which positivism and secular ideas had caused it to stray by an abstract view of education.

The new programs do not impose upon the teacher a predetermined amount of knowledge, which he is required to impart to his pupils. The programs have a suggestive character only. They point out to the teacher the result which the State expects from his work for each school year. In order to obtain this result, the teacher is free to use whatever means he wishes. In the words of Professor Codignola: "The school should not try to ladle out a ready-made knowledge or pour out a determined number of notions from the brain of the teacher into that of the pupil, but try to lead the pupil, little by little, to become conscious of his humanity through the experience of history, life, and nature." Hence the school legislator must limit himself to indicating the goal. The teacher must be let free to find the way by himself. It is a new experience to read in an official decree such words as those with which Gentile introduced his new programs in 1923—programs which are still in force:

The schemes for study which are described here are intended primarily as a guide. The teacher is informed of the result which the State expects from his work in each school year, leaving him free to use what he individually considers the most suitable means for arriving at it. These, for various reasons, are always various and elastic according to how the teacher is situated with regard to his scholastic surroundings, and according to his individual personal culture, and the particular character he has succeeded in giving to the spirit of his teaching, by means of observation and personal experience. The following schemes are designed in such a way as to oblige the teacher continually to renew his personal culture, not only by means of the superficial little manuals in which he can gather the crumbs of knowledge, but from the living fountains of national culture. . . . These schemes forbid the commonplace platitudes which have so long dulled the education of children, and demand pure genuine poetry, sincere searching for truth, energetic investigation of the popular spirit, restless and never satisfied, asking always the reason why, the rapture of contemplating pictures resplendent with art and life, the communion of great souls which speak through the mouth of the teacher.

The table on the following page is the program which Gentile suggested for the elementary schools and which are still in force.

Suggested Program for Elementary Schools:

<i>Subjects</i>	Y E A R					Supple- mentary
	Prepar- atory	I	II	III	IV	V
Religion	1	1½	1½	2	2	2
Singing, drawing, penmanship, recitation	4	2½	2½	4	5	5
Reading, writing, and exercises in Italian language	—	7	6	5	5	4
Spelling	—	—	2	2	—	—
Arithmetic, geometrical drawing, bookkeeping	—	4	4	4	3	3
Miscellaneous subjects and recreation	6	4	4	4	1	1
Gardening, manual training, domestic science, gymnastics, games, lunches, hygiene	24	6	5	4	4	4
Physical and natural sciences, hygiene	—	—	—	—	2	2
History and geography	—	—	—	—	3	3
Elements of law, economics	—	—	—	—	—	1
Vocational training	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total hours per week	35	25	25	25	25	20
						25

A significant feature of Gentile's reform has been the re-establishment of the place of religion in education. In fact, the present regulations prescribe that the teaching of the Christian doctrine in accordance with the Catholic tradition shall form the foundation of elementary school education.

Religious instruction occupies a prominent place in the curriculum. The program in this field includes: prayers and religious hymns; religious talks; comments on the prayers; episodes from the Old and New Testament; lessons on the *Pater*, the life of Jesus, the Commandments; lessons on the history of the Catholic religion; lives of great Italian saints; principles of religious life and worship; the study of the sacraments; religious poems. In accordance with the spirit of these regulations, every classroom is provided with a Crucifix, and the image of the Redeemer hangs between those of His Majesty the King, and the Duce.

It is important to note here that though Gentile would teach the doctrines and dogmas of Catholicism quite thoroughly, he frankly considers them as the mythical wrappings of a spiritual reality. This devotion to the teachings of Catholicism is an aspect of the nationalistic philosophy, since the Roman Catholic Church is regarded as a peculiarly Italian institution and a storehouse of national tradition. There is, however, less enthusiasm for the teaching of the Catholic religion in the schools among other Fascist leaders, although as a matter of fact, the successors of Gentile have made certain additional concessions to the Church, such as enforcement of the study of religion in all secondary schools, and the exclusion from the schools of professors and text-books that are not acceptable to the Church.

For over a quarter of a century before the Gentile reform the subject of religious education in the elementary schools had been a storm center. The Casati law of November 13, 1859, established the principle that religious instruction was to be compulsory in the elementary school. Article 315 of that law provided: "Elementary education shall consist of two grades—the lower and the higher. Instruction in the lower grade shall include religion, reading, writing. . ." Article 325 stipulated that "pastors shall examine the pupils of elementary schools on religion, and this examination shall be held at a time and place to be fixed by common agreement between the municipality and the pastors." The enforcement of this law did not give rise to any difficulties.

In 1870 Minister Correnti issued a circular which, in substance, radically changed the law of 1859 by making the study of religion optional rather than obligatory. This circular failed to produce any spirited comments. In 1874, however, the subject of religious education came up for discussion for the first time in the Chamber of Deputies. Some of the members desired to exclude religious training from the schools entirely, arguing that it was the affair of the priests alone and did not concern the State; others wished to permit the individual municipalities to decide whether or not religion should be taught in the schools. The latter were victorious when a motion made by Cairoli was adopted giving the municipalities the right to decide the question for themselves. At the same time, the Italian Parliament abolished chairs of theology in the universities.

The publication of the Coppino law of 1877, which, among other things, made elementary education compulsory, brought again to the fore the question of religious instruction in the elementary schools. Article 2 of that law, in listing the compulsory subjects of study, substituted the "elements of the duties of man and citizen" for religion. Many persons maintained that the Coppino law, by eliminating religion from among the compulsory subjects of study, served merely to legalize the Correnti circular of 1870, which had made religious education optional. Others were of the opinion that the status of religion in the schools had not changed, since the Coppino law did not legislate for all the subjects included in the Casati law. This belief was shared by the State Council in an opinion expressed on May 17, 1878.

In 1888, during Coppino's fourth ministry, there was published the first regulation on elementary education providing that religion might be taught only to those pupils whose parents so requested. The regulation also gave the Provincial School Council power to outline the program for religious instruction to be given in each grade. In 1895, this power was taken away from the School Council by a regulation sponsored by Minister Baccelli. By way of explanation it was said that it was too difficult to establish the program of study for an elective subject. The Baccelli regulation also left to the option of the teacher the decision as to whether or not he should give religious instruction to his pupils.

The new regulation failed to satisfy the people, despite the fact that the great majority of pupils continued to receive instruction in religion. A survey made in 1897 showed that religion was taught in

33,000 of the 49,800 schools visited, and that 1,500,000 of the 2,300,000 pupils attended the classes in religion. The survey also revealed that of 8,258 municipalities, 5,975 provided such instruction on request, and that of the teachers of religion, 11,000 were men, 20,000 women, and that only 2,600 were priests.

Gradually the debates on this question grew more spirited, and the subject soon became a source of constant agitation to the people. This was in part due to the conduct of some of the larger municipalities which, under the control of the democrats, refused to provide religious instruction even for those pupils whose parents or guardians had requested it, under the pretext that the regulation requiring it was unconstitutional, since the Coppino law had abolished the teaching of the subject. This thesis was supported by a new opinion of the State Council issued on May 8, 1903, which, reversing its former position, declared that the municipalities were not obliged to provide for the teaching of this subject; adding, however, that as long as the regulation of 1895 remained in force, the section relating to religion had to be applied. At the same time, the Council of State called to the attention of the Ministry the necessity of harmonizing the regulation with the law on compulsory education.

The agitation became more pronounced following the publication of the Orlando law of 1904, which did not include religion among the subjects to be taught in the elementary school. Catholic parents protested strongly, and petitions were sent to the Government from every source. The Minister of Public Instruction, Luigi Rava, thereupon appointed a commission to prepare a new regulation on elementary education which, in accordance with the opinion of the State Council, was to be harmonized with the Coppino law insofar as religious instruction was concerned.

After a thorough examination of the subject, the commission drew up a new regulation which was approved by the Royal decree of February 6, 1908. It was about to be published, when Leonida Bissoleti presented the following motion to the Chamber of Deputies at its meeting of February 18, 1908: "The Chamber invites the Government to make certain that the elementary school is laic, and that the teaching of religion in the schools be prohibited."

Article 3 of the new regulation contained the following provision for religious instruction:

The communes shall provide religious instruction for those pupils whose parents request it, on days and at hours to be established by the Provincial School Council. The instruction is to be given by those teachers who are reputed to be qualified for such work, or by other persons whose capability is recognized by the School Council proper.

When, however, the majority of the members of the Council assigned to the commune do not believe in providing religious instruction, it may then be given, under the supervision of the parents who requested it, by a person who has a license to teach in an elementary school and who is approved by the Provincial School Council. In such cases, the school buildings shall be made available for such teaching at the hours which shall be established by the Provincial School Council.

The lively discussion that followed Bissolati's motion continued for seven sessions (February 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 25, 26, 1908). The speeches made at these hearings are interesting reading, since they convey an idea of the politics of the period. Bissolati declared frankly that he wished the schools to be atheist because this would prepare the way for the establishment of a socialist régime.

The debate finally ended with a speech by Giovanni Giolitti, President of the Council, in which he declared that the question of religious education had been solved by the new regulation in a satisfactory manner, inasmuch as no one's liberty had been sacrificed—the liberty of the municipalities to give or refuse to give religious instruction; the liberty of the teachers to accept or to reject the duty to teach the subject; and finally the liberty of the parents to have religion taught in the public school buildings even though the municipalities refused to provide directly for such instruction. When the Government's bill was put to a vote, it was approved by a vote of 279 against 129.

The new regulation caused much dissatisfaction. It was felt that in granting such wide liberties to the municipalities, to the teachers, and to the parents and guardians, the Government, as some acute observers noted, had preserved another liberty for itself—that of evading the problem. Some educators argued that it would have been a much better policy to abolish religious instruction entirely, than to maintain it under such unsatisfactory conditions. Religion, they pointed out, was often taught during the last period on Saturdays, when the pupils were already very tired. Furthermore, they stated that the teaching of this subject depended on the political color of the majority of the Council,

and was therefore subject to frequent interruptions. In a few places parents availed themselves of the privilege of having religion taught in the school buildings when their municipalities refused to provide for the teaching of the subject.

This condition remained unchanged up to the advent of Fascism. Even the Popular (Catholic) Party did nothing when it was in power, though one of its number, Antonino Anile, became Minister of Public Instruction.

A few months after the March on Rome, the Fascists, in connection with their educational reforms, succeeded in solving the question of religious instruction in a manner to conform with the wishes of the Italian people, who are profoundly and sincerely religious. Article 3 of the Royal decree of October 1, 1923, reproduced in article 27 of the Consolidated Law of February 5, 1928, No. 577, was dictated by the Duce himself. It states: "As the foundation and the crowning point of elementary education in each grade, there is placed the teaching of the Christian doctrine according to the form received from Catholic tradition."

This principle was later clarified in the ordinance of November 11, 1923, at which time the educational programs were made public:

An important place in the course of study is reserved to religion, which is looked upon by the law as the foundation of all the subjects studied in the elementary school, since all subjects are necessarily imbued with its spirit. The music program emphasizes hymns; the Italian program offers frequent opportunities to recall and exalt the heroes of the Church; the program of cultural recreative occupations gives the teachers other opportunities to introduce the subject of religion; the subject of history stresses personalities and events important in religious culture. During the study of religion pupils are made to meditate on the subjects of the special program, which are the points of concentration of all the elements of religious culture scattered throughout the various subjects.

In the carrying out of these regulations, the Fascist Government has constantly aimed at the best possible results. Difficulties have been overcome by the cordial and loyal cooperation of the school and ecclesiastical authorities. The Ministry has appointed a member of the Church to direct and coordinate the teaching of religion in the entire Kingdom.

It is interesting to note that nearly all pupils attend the classes in religion. In practice, families have not availed themselves of the privilege granted by article 27 of the Consolidated law: "Children whose parents desire to provide personally for their religious instruction are exempted from attending the classes in religion."

In its desire to minimize inevitable conflicts with the Church, the Fascist Government has decreed that teachers of religion may be appointed only with the previous approval of the ecclesiastical authorities. Fascist educators have felt and still feel that only by attaining a profound realization of the spiritual values of life can governments achieve enduring and beneficial results. There are skeptics, of course, who ask "whether this can proceed from the teaching of rigid institutions or from the free activity of the religious conscience of the individual."

Despite the inclusion of religion in the elementary and secondary school curricula and the requirement that teachers of religion must be approved by the ecclesiastical authorities, the Vatican has protested against the Fascist system of education. This protest is embodied in the papal encyclical of December 31, 1929, against secular education and the State monopoly of education.

The system of Catholic education which the Church had been developing for centuries has now been replaced in Italy by a Fascist education which, though Catholic, is independent of Church control. The Church schools and youth organizations, such as the *Gioventù Cattolica* and the Catholic Scouts, have been absorbed into the Government's own system despite the protests of the Church. Mussolini and the educational authorities of the Fascist Government have been firm in their purpose to nationalize the schools. They have seen clearly the necessity of bringing up a new generation well-steeped in Fascism. They felt it necessary to suppress the Church youth organizations because they found them an opposing influence. The rites and ceremonies of the Church, they believe, are not at all suited to capture the enthusiasm of youth. The Fascist youth organizations, designed to enlist the support of youth on the side of the Government, will be discussed later.

In addition to religious teaching, a considerable part of the school time in each of the five elementary grades is quite naturally devoted to the study of the Italian language, and practical subjects such as

gardening, domestic science, manual training, drawing, and arithmetic. The teaching of writing, reading, and the content subjects which formed the principal aim of the old school, has now passed to secondary rank and has assumed characteristics of an entirely different nature. On the other hand, subjects nearest to child nature and those most suitable to the development of his mind are given first place in the elementary grades. An important innovation of the Gentile programs is the new way of understanding the teaching of art. There should be but one goal for aesthetic exercises. They must promote and discipline the pupil's expression in all its forms. They must help him to speak clearly and with precision, since even singing, drawing, modelling and play are forms of language. For example, in art training the school no longer proposes to furnish the instruments, but it endeavors to elevate the soul of the pupil to an appreciation of the beautiful; it no longer compels the child to accept mechanical formulas, but it follows and guides him in his world of dreams, in his recreative life, in the joyful sense of the beautiful and the divine. Certain arts, especially drawing and singing, are very prominent in the curriculum. Probably the one outstanding mark of progress in art teaching in the elementary grades is the serious effort to study the problem from a scientific viewpoint. Drawing, for example, has really begun to appear as a story-telling language, vivid with observed, memorized, and imagined pictures.

Professor Codignola has summarized as follows the goal of the school and teacher in aesthetic training:

To promote and discipline expression presupposes, on the teacher's part, a religious respect for the pupil's personality, a respect which must not be reduced to a passive acceptance or an unintelligent exaltation of the first scribble that the pupil produces. It must consist in the clear conviction that everyone carries his own teacher in his soul and hence, in the firm determination never to substitute and never to impose an external model upon the pupil who, in singing, drawing, narration, and modelling, tries to express his soul.

Expression must seem inadequate to the author himself, if we wish him to correct it and to progress. We may intervene only in order to arouse in his mind the sense of this inadequacy. But even this we must do in an indirect, rather than direct way, by educating him to enrich his mind and broaden his mental horizon, to see more clearly into himself, rather than by insisting from time to time upon his individual errors. That is the reason why the new programs wisely advise teachers to "respect the

first shapeless, and sometimes ridiculous scrawls, which nevertheless are the most that the child can give at that moment." Drawing, singing, language, and play are always the total and synthetic expression of the whole personality of the pupil: they are enriched, completed and made precise as his personality progresses. Poverty and crudeness of lines and words are not only poverty and crudeness of means of expression. They are poverty and crudeness of mind, lack of observation and attention, and lack of will.

If one were to confine himself to correcting lines or substituting words, he would be performing a task as vain as that of Sisyphus. Even here we must repeat that the shapeless scribble of the young pupil, who tries to put a little order in his intuitions, contains more truth than the learned correction of the teacher who intervenes prematurely. Truth does not lie in a fixed expression, but in the truth of the expression.²

The framers of the new programs have been inspired by the spirit of patriotism. The elementary school must emphasize the spiritual unity of the nation. Accordingly, geography and history are stressed. The teaching of geography is begun in the third grade. It is studied during the hours devoted to miscellaneous subjects. The official programs prescribe the following topics for this grade:

- 1) Orientation—place of residence.
- 2) Elementary knowledge of topographical representation; location of the place of residence on the map.
- 3) Fundamentals of physical geography. The earth—field lectures and short written exercises.
- 4) Location on the topographical map, drawn by the teacher on the board and simultaneously by the pupils, of the names of the principal streets, squares, buildings, business houses, etc.
- 5) Detailed information concerning the commune and its surroundings.
- 6) Brief, vivid elementary knowledge on the administration of the Italian State; its administrative divisions; the government departments and the principal public services; civic societies and institutions.
- 7) Brief historical sketches of the municipality in which the school is located, and of its most famous men.

In the fourth elementary grade, the study of geography is continued as follows:

²Codignola, *op. cit.*, p. 190-191.

- 1) Repetition of the subject matter of the third grade, with special reference to the elements of physical geography and of their application to the interpretation of maps.
- 2) Orientation exercises and reading of topographical maps.
- 3) Physical and political geography of Italy.
- 4) Foreign countries. Brief outline and readings on the geography, political organization and administration, agriculture, industry, economics, and conditions of the labor market of the countries toward which the permanent or temporary migratory currents of the region have been directed.

In the fifth grade the study of geography includes:

- 1) Review and further details of the material covered in the preceding grade.
- 2) Elements and readings in general geography.
- 3) Physical and political geography of Europe.
- 4) The study of other continents.
- 5) Simple map exercises in connection with the review of the entire program of the elementary schools.

In connection with the study of history, which begins in the third grade, teachers are required to arouse and strengthen a national consciousness in the children by talks on the lives of great Italian patriots, notably Garibaldi, Cavour, Mazzini, and Battisti, and by comments on the lives of Italian martyrs who suffered for the independence of Italy.

The program in history for the third year includes: well-organized stories on the history of Italy, from 1848 to 1918, and readings of the more significant documents, such as proclamations and memoirs of martyrs. The instructions require that proclamations of the victories, both of the army and navy, which ended the war of liberation of 1915-1918, must be affixed in every school room, beginning with the third class.

In the fourth class the study of history is enlarged so as to cover the following:

- 1) Origins of human civilization; study of monuments of ancient civilizations.
- 2) Greek heroes: brief readings, study of Greek legends, visits to Greek works of art.
- 3) Roman heroes: lessons, readings, and examinations of monuments of Rome, especially those existing in the region.

In the fifth class the following topics are treated:

- 1) Italian history during the period of Italian domination, with special attention to the history of the region.
- 2) Foremost Italian painters, sculptors, and architects, again with special reference to those of the region.
- 3) Great Italian scientific discoveries.
- 4) Outline of the history of Rome during the nineteenth century.
- 5) The army and navy of Italy
- 6) History of the Great War: readings on the exploits of heroes and patriots, on individual episodes, and on main events.
- 7) The great public works in Italy after the unification; labor conditions and national wealth, and how they compared with those of other nations.

In preparing the new program of studies, the desire of the educational authorities was that children might add to their natural endowments the knowledge of books and modern methods, without becoming standardized. The object was not to make over the children of the different localities into the same pattern, but to train and direct their emotions without destroying their originality. Professor Henri Goy, Chief of the Information Service of the Sorbonne, commenting on the program of studies, says that in comparison with the very recent programs of the French schools, the Italian programs mark "a sharper break with the past, and a more decided leap towards the future."

Text-books

Closely connected with the curriculum of the elementary school is the problem of text-books. During the early years of the educational régime in Italy this problem was one of great concern to the school authorities. The books which had been handed down from the old system were inadequate from the pedagogical standpoint, and they did not meet the requirements of the new cultural program. Various attempts were made to introduce books of a better type into the schools, but it was not until January 1929, that the problem was satisfactorily solved by the adoption of a series of State text-books which all elementary schools of the kingdom were required to put into use.

It may be of interest to consider briefly the various efforts at

text-book reform which led up to the adoption of these State texts.

As early as 1882, the Italian Government had become cognizant of the necessity of supervision over the choice of text-books for elementary schools. In order to prevent the introduction of undesirable and inadequate texts into the schools, provincial committees were appointed by the Government to examine all books then in use, and to discard those which were deemed unsuitable. These commissions, however, worked spasmodically and without a definite purpose, with the result that, though they did some creditable work, they accomplished little in the end and caused numerous inconveniences. Nevertheless, this plan of supervision remained in operation until the World War, when the Decree Law of June 17, 1915, No. 897, abolished the provincial text-book commissions and established a Central Commission, composed of a president and fourteen members, whose duty it was to compile, from among the text-books submitted for approval, a list of those suitable for use in the elementary, evening, holiday and fall schools. This regulation did not affect the private schools.

The War, however, prevented the Central Commission from carrying out its work. Therefore, in order to control the production and choice of elementary school text-books, a series of regulations was issued giving the Royal School Inspector the right, from year to year, to veto any proposals made by teachers for the adoption of text-books if the books recommended were not up to standard. These rules remained in force until 1923.

A Royal decree of March 11, 1923, No. 737, prescribed that text-books were to be examined by local or regional commissions under the supervision of the Royal Educational Supervisors. This law, however, was never applied, for it was superseded by the Royal decree of May 18, 1924, No. 943, which provided that during a period of two years a ministerial commission should prepare lists of suitable text-books from among those presented by authors and publishers. The definitive approval of the texts and the publication of the final list of approved books rested with the Ministry. The law stated that text-books not in the regular list or in the supplementary lists published in the official bulletin of the Ministry could not be used in the schools. Appeals against the decision of the commission could be made to the Minister.

Authors and publishers who desired to introduce a book into the schools had to present it for examination to the supervisor of the region in which they resided, or to the supervisor of the region in

which the book was to be used. There was an examination fee of 75 lire for books for the first two classes, and 100 lire for all other books. The following classes of books were not accepted for examination: books published anonymously or under a pseudonym; books prepared by a group of teachers, directors or inspectors; and books published by an association of authors totally or partly composed of school teachers or administrators.

As an illustration of the work accomplished by the text-book commission, it may be mentioned that in 1923 it reported the examination of 2,491 books. Of these, 317 were on history and geography, 114 were on religion, 350 were arithmetics, and 1,710 were readers. Of the total number of books examined, only 338 were approved for use in the schools.

A later report of the commission, published in the official bulletin of the Ministry of Public Instruction, February 23, 1926, stated that the percentage of text-books found unfit for use in the schools was decreasing. Of 1,326 books examined, 949 were approved for class use.

Decree No. 943, which expired in 1925, was extended by subsequent legislation, namely, the Royal decrees of January 7, 1926, No. 209; May 22, 1927, No. 850, and March 18, 1928, No. 780; and by several ministerial ordinances and regulations.

The laws passed from 1923 to 1928 aiming at government regulation of the selection of text-books for the elementary schools are of interest because they reveal the early efforts of the Fascist régime to provide the young pupils of the country with proper tools for their work; but the system of control was too complicated and did not yield the desired results. In the meantime, radical reforms had been introduced in the elementary schools, and in 1928, H. E. Pietro Fedele presented a plan for the provision of text-books that would insure the success of these reforms. This plan was later embodied in the law of January 7, 1929, No. 5.

The plan contained four provisions: 1) that beginning with the school year 1930-31, all public and private schools in the Kingdom should adopt the official State text-books which would contain the subject matter of the school programs then in force; 2) that the State text-books could be revised and brought up-to-date at intervals of three years from the time of their adoption; 3) that a ministerial commission be appointed to direct and coordinate the work necessary for the

compilation of the texts; 4) that the publication and sale of these text-books be entrusted to the General State Bureau (*Provveditorato Generale dello Stato*), which was to function through the State Library (*Libreria dello Stato*). All other regulations concerning elementary school text-books were to be abrogated.

The subject of State text-books was discussed at length in educational circles. Some educators were opposed to their adoption on the ground that it was pedagogically unsound to prescribe the same texts for all schools, especially in a country like Italy where conditions differed greatly in the various regions. But such opponents were not numerous, and their protests received little support. The political and educational principles on which Fedele's plan was based were so evident that even those who at first opposed the measure came to see its importance. The plan had the full approval of Premier Mussolini, who after its embodiment in the law of January 7, 1929, No. 5, followed its application with a vigilant eye.

The Ministerial Commission on State Text-books entrusted the work of compiling the texts to persons prominent in the field of letters, science, art and education. It reserved to itself the right to revise and coordinate the work in order to make certain that the texts were pedagogically sound and imbued with the true Fascist spirit.

The authors selected to prepare the books included: Roberto Forges Davanzati, A. S. Novaro, Grazia Deledda, O. Quercia Tanzarella (Ornella), all famous in the field of literature; and such eminent men in the field of science as H. E. Paribeni, H. E. Parravano, Luigi Simonetta, and Professors Lori, Vaccari, Vinassa, Scorza, De Marchi, and Zammarchi.

On April 21, 1930, the 2684th anniversary of the founding of Rome, H. E. Giuliano, then Minister of National Education, presented the Duce with the first copies of the State text-books for each elementary school grade. The distribution of the texts in the schools began in the academic year 1930-31. The task involved in providing the first supply of the books is evident from the following figures as to the number of volumes published:

Primers	1,705,000
Texts for the second grade	1,100,000
Texts for the third grade	950,000
Texts for the fourth grade	
Readers	600,000
Other subjects	600,000
Texts for the fifth grade	
Readers	250,000
Other subjects	250,000
	<hr/>
Total	5,455,000

To avoid burdening the State budget with the costs of publishing the books, the Government created an organization, in agreement with the *Poligrafico di Stato* (State Polygraphic Institute), which arranged for the collaboration of publishers and book dealers in the printing, distribution and sale of the books, and guaranteed them a legitimate profit.

The political importance attached to the adoption of the State text-books is shown by the following passage from the report on the subject accompanying the estimated expenditures of the Ministry of National Education for the fiscal year 1931-32, when the books were already in use in the schools:

The need for one text-book in the elementary schools of the Kingdom cannot but be recognized and understood by those who bear in mind the totalitarian concept of the régime, by those who have followed and still follow with a careful eye the work and services of the Fascist State in behalf of the younger generations.

The adoption of one State text-book as an instrument for the Fascist education of children has, therefore, a revolutionary character. In fact, the Fascist Revolution felt that it had the right and the duty of impressing its own spirit on the generations and of accelerating the process of renewing the national culture and education.

It has been noted that Law No. 5, of 1929, provided that the State text-books could be partially or entirely revised every three years; in other words, if conditions warranted it, new texts could be prepared after the expiration of this period. At the end of the first three years,

however, the Ministry of National Education decided that it would not at that time introduce any changes in the texts. There were three reasons for this decision: the first was that after one year of use the books had been carefully re-examined and revised by the authors themselves in accordance with suggestions from a ministerial commission; the second was that the books answered the purpose for which they were prepared; the third reason was a financial one, namely, that changes in the text-books would have caused inconvenience and additional expense to parents, particularly to those with large families who usually make the same book do for more than one child.

It is important to examine the contents of the State text-books for the various grades, since they bear a definite relation to the curriculum, and also because they shed light on the aims and purposes of the elementary school.

The primer entitled *Sillabario e Piccole Letture* was compiled by Mrs. Dina Bucciarelli Belardinelli and was illustrated by Angelo della Torre. In accordance with the official program, this book begins, not with isolated words, but with simple sentences; then follow connected sentences and brief dialogues; at the end there are short readings, anecdotes, and simple poems devoted to ideological and educational subjects. Home, religious and patriotic sentiments are stressed as are the hygienic rules of life. Often the content of one page is related to that of another, so that the interest of the pupil is maintained and developed on the same subject. The illustrations often serve as topics for lessons and conversations. National sentiments and Fascist ideals are introduced early. Thus, on one page there is an illustration of a large eagle, with the following story:

The eagle has large and strong wings.

It flies high and makes its nest in the rocks of mountains.

It loves its young and courageously defends its nest from all danger.

Our aviators are strong and courageous like the eagles.

The Balilla are the eaglets of Italy.

The Little Italian Girls are the swallows of Italy.

On another page there is a large illustration of the "Fascio" with the legend in large letters—"Long Live Fascist Italy!"

It continues as follows:

The "Fascio"! All children know it well. They see it in the school

and at home; they see it in the small button which dady wears on the lapel of his coat and which mother fastens on his suit.

All the children of Italy are young Fascists.

They love the King; they love the Duce. They have learned by heart the songs of the mother country and they repeat them joyously:

"Giovinezza, giovinezza,
primavera di bellezza. . ."

The following prayer is found on another page:

The prayer of all Italian children.

Bless our day, Oh good God, our Creator, and God of the whole world.

Bless our families.

Bless our work as pupils.

Grant the joy of peace and of work to all Italians.

Grant eternal peace to our dead.

Protect the Pontiff.

Protect the King and the Duce who honor your Church.

Accept this our prayer and free us from all evil.

Amen.

The text-book for the second grade is divided into two parts. The first, consisting of about two-thirds of the entire volume, is devoted to reading matter, and was compiled by Mrs. O. Quercia Tanzarella (Ornella) and illustrated by Mario Pompei. The second part, occupying about sixty pages, is devoted to religion. It was compiled by Mgr. Angelo Zammarchi and the Rev. Cesare Angelini, with the approval of the ecclesiastical authorities.

The first lesson in the reader is a prayer entitled "First Day," in which after asking the Lord to bless their work and help them in their good intentions, the children express a desire to join the *Balilla* or the *Piccole Italiane*. The mother of one of the children interrupts the conversation to remind them that they are still too young to talk of joining these organizations. "You are not yet registered," she remarks, "and we do not know whether you will be deserving of it. . ."

Another lesson, entitled "Obedience," reads as follows:

A wise man was asked: "What should be the first virtue of a child?"
He replied: "Obedience."

And the second?

"Obedience."

And the third?

"Obedience."

What should be the first requisite of the *Balilla* and the *Piccole Italiane*?

"Obedience."

In another lesson entitled "Flags at the Windows," a pupil informs his teacher that his father has bought an Italian tricolor to hang from a window of his house. The enquiring child asks the teacher to explain why the flag had been bought. The other children show much interest when the teacher explains that all windows and balconies would display the Italian flag on the following day. She tells them that to-morrow will be the 28th of October. (The picture of the Duce on horseback is shown here). The children ask: "What happened on the 28th of October?" The teacher replies: "It is the anniversary of the March on Rome. The Fascists with their black shirts entered Rome and placed everything in order. Then the Duce arrived and said: 'Away with all the bad Italians who do not know how to do things well. Now I am the one who has the task in hand, and I will place everything in order! Long live Italy!'"

Another lesson relates the story of the 4th of November, Italy's Armistice day. Still others deal with a variety of subjects: Christmas; important national political holidays in November; the *Befana Fascista*; Saint Joseph's day; Holy Saturday; May 24th, the anniversary of Italy's declaration of war against Austria; the *Balilla*; the Italian colonies, etc.

The last lesson deals with the last day of school, and the final paragraph reads:

Then the boys took their brief cases, and talking like little sparrows, walked out to meet their parents who were impatiently waiting for them. The *Balilla* of the higher grades, lined up in the courtyard, were singing: "Giovinezza, Giovinezza, Primavera di bellezza".

The text-book of the third elementary class consists of 455 pages and is divided into five parts, as follows:

Part I: Reader, pp. 5-154, compiled by Grazia Deledda and illustrated by Pio Pullini.

Part II: Religion, pp. 155-210, compiled by Mgr. Angelo Zammarchi and the Rev. Cesare Angelini, with ecclesiastical approval.

Part III: History, pp. 211-330, compiled by Ottorino Bertolini.

Part IV: Geography, pp. 331-374, compiled by Luigi de Marchi.

Part V: Arithmetic, pp. 375-443, compiled by Gaetano Scorza.

The third lesson in the reader deals with "The House of the Duce." Sergio, a school boy tells two classmates, that his father, to reward him for having been promoted last year, had allowed him and his brothers to visit the house where the Duce was born. The trip was made in an automobile. Before reaching Predappio, the Duce's native town, his father had stopped the car and said: "This is the street in which, as a child, he walked many, many times."

We looked on, visibly touched; we thought we could see him, no older than ourselves, walking in the shadow of the hedge with a book in his hand.

The car was started again, going always uphill. We passed the first houses in Predappio; then a large school, a magnificent building with a hill for its background; the town had the appearance of a city. My father said:

"That is the Varano palace, now the seat of the municipality. The interior is sumptuous, with large halls containing paintings, works of art, historical memoirs; but at one time it was an old building, inhabited by people in very modest circumstances. On the top floor lived the family of Mussolini. His father was a blacksmith; his mother taught in the school. They were not rich, but they were very intelligent and had faith. The Duce lived here in his childhood; from those windows his eyes looked out into the world. This house is now an historical monument.

"More humble, but not less significant, is the place to which we are now going," added my father as we walked up a narrow street which led to the house where the Duce was born.

We observed everything in silence. The large bed covered with a simple squared quilt, the chimney, the table—everything had been there at the time of his birth. My father then related to us the story of the Duce's life.

Towards the end of the reader there is a chapter on the World War. One pupil asks the teacher what had Italy done in the War.

"A good question," answers the teacher. "Italy entered the War when the Austro-Germans were about to conquer the Allies and thus prevented their victory. *And it was Italy, finally, that decided the fate of the entire War with the glorious battle of Vittorio Veneto.* Repeat it Sergio, Anselmuccio, Cherubino."

The children repeat: "It was Italy that decided the fate of the entire War with the glorious battle of Vittorio Veneto."

In the fourth grade there are two separate text-books. One serves

as the reader; the other is divided into parts devoted to religion, history, geography, arithmetic, and the sciences.

The reader, compiled by Angiolo Silvio Novaro, and illustrated by Bruno Bramanti, consists of 194 pages. The stories are presented in a lively and entertaining fashion. Between the various stories are interspersed poems which stress the beauty of nature. There are also pages emphasizing the ideals which Fascism strives to inculcate. The stories presented cover many phases of life: the nation, economics, culture, ethics, history, education, religion, ethnology.

Though patriotism and religion receive a large share of attention, many ideals are also taught. Among these are: Industry, obedience and devotion to parents, modesty. Such principles as these are emphasized: knowledge is power; the will to succeed can overcome "fortune" or "destiny"; one must not complain of his lot; families should be large; Italians must improve themselves.

The bravery of such heroes as Cesare Battista, Nazario Sauro, and Francesco Baracca is presented in an inspiring and impressive manner. The frightful condition of Italy after the World War and the achievements of Fascism in its efforts to save the country are related. Mussolini's rise to fame in spite of many obstacles, and Fascist organizations for the young are vividly described. Love for their king is stressed. In story form the students are told that their Italian culture must spread, international trade must be encouraged, that Lybia must be developed, and that Italy is once again on the road to greatness.

Many cases are cited in which eminent Italians have achieved fame by surmounting great obstacles. Interesting information and anecdotes are presented concerning such men as Giotto, Brunelleschi, Michelangelo, da Vinci, Raffaello, Titian, Boccaccio, Dante, Machiavelli, Manzoni, Homer, Virgil, Ariosto, Tasso, Leopardi, Palestrina, Monteverde, Lulli, Rossini, Bellini, Verdi, Donizetti.

The grandeur of Rome is extolled. To attain such grandeur once again is the goal of contemporary Italy.

The other text-book for the fourth grade is divided as follows:

Part I: Religion, pp. 5-58, compiled by Mgr. Angelo Zammarchi and the Rev. Cesare Angelini, with ecclesiastical approval.

Part II: History, pp. 59-154, compiled by Roberto Paribeni.

Part III: Geography, pp. 155-280, compiled by Professor Luigi de Marchi.

Part IV: Arithmetic, pp. 281-344, compiled by Gaetano Scorza.

Part V: Sciences, pp.346-553, compiled by Professors Alessandro Brizi, Ferdinando Lori, Nicola Parravano, Luigi Simonetta, Lino Vaccari.

The religion taught is the Catholic religion. The humility and the good works (*Faceva del ben a tutti*) of Christ are emphasized. The Ten Commandments are explained. The Fifth Commandment forbids murder, but it is explained that there are certain cases in which murder is justifiable: self-defense, war, and the death penalty imposed by the State.

Prayer is not only prescribed as essential, but it is stated that this should be a daily exercise. Frequent confessions are urged. By selections from the New and Old Testaments, the tenets of Catholicism are expounded.

The history studied in this grade includes the period from the Stone Age to the fall of the Roman Empire. It touches slightly on the history of Egypt, Babylonia, the Hebrews, the Phoenicians, and Persia. It goes into greater detail with respect to Greece, and deals with Athens, Sparta, Alexander the Great, and the Greeks who migrated to Italy. The most space is devoted to the rise and fall of the Roman Empire. "Of the many peoples who inhabited Italy," it is stated, "the Latins rose to greatest fame. They were poor but industrious, frugal, tenacious of simple and pure habits, honest, lovers of family, religious, just and upright." These qualities are to be admired and appreciated by the children. Rome brought the world peace and order. Rome obtained greatness through hard work and the exercise of virtue. "But with riches the citizens became lazy and corrupt and a prey to barbarian hordes."

This history is related in an informal and paternal manner. Except, perhaps, for the few examples cited above, the subject matter is totally devoid of propaganda.

The geography deals with a description of the various regions of Italy: the capital, rivers, climate, principal products, and brief mention of the important rôle played by the various regions in the historical development of present-day Italy. The Italian colonial possessions in Africa are also described. This section also stresses the fact that Italy, on account of its position, should be the natural mistress of the Mediterranean. This had once been dominated by the Roman Empire and later by Venice, Genoa, Florence, Pisa, Naples, Amalfi, Palermo.

The Fascist Government, it is pointed out, protects Italians abroad from unscrupulous speculators; and at home it tries to improve the lands and to assure honest labor contracts.

In the fifth grade there are also two texts—the reader, and the volume of miscellaneous subjects. The title of the reader for this grade is *Il Balilla Vittorio*. Written by Roberto Forges Davanzati, this book traces the history of two brothers and their families. In the course of the story many ideals and ideas are brought out: that the family should be as united as possible; that families should be large; that hard study and work are necessary for success. Courage, will-power, and unselfishness are emphasized; soldierly habits and duties are explained, cleanliness is stressed; arguments in favor of such studies as Latin and geometry are presented. Religion receives its share of attention, for spiritual values are placed above materialistic values. All in all, the young boys are made to feel vitally the future greatness in store for Italy.

Geography, science, history (including contemporary politics), and art are all included in the book. Important cities and their attractions (for example, Saint Peter's Museum of Pope Julius) receive due notice. Italy's African colonies are discussed. Reference is made to the unity of Italy (Cavour, Manin, Garibaldi, the March on Rome). Mussolini's Concordat with the Pope is mentioned, as is his draining of the Pontine marshes.

At the end of the book there is an Appendix, which contains information on the various questions which may arise in the reading of the text.

The other text used in the fifth grade is divided as follows:

Part I: Religion, pp. 5-90, compiled by Mgr. Angelo Zammarchi and the Rev. Cesare Angelini, with ecclesiastical approval.

Part II: History, pp. 91-202, compiled by Professor Alfonso Gallo.

Part III: Geography, pp. 203-324, compiled by Professor Luigi de Marchi.

Part IV: Arithmetic, pp. 325-430, compiled by Gaetano Scorza.

Part V: Sciences, pp. 431-612, compiled by Professors Alessandro Brizi, Ferdinando Lori, Luigi Simonetta, Lino Vaccari, Paolo Vinassa de Regny.

There is a special prayer for the Church, the Pope, the King, and the Head of the Government. A brief summary of the religious in-

struction received in the fourth grade is given. The public worship of the Church and the explanation of the Sacraments take up the major portion of this section, which also contains religious poems and lines taken from Italy's greatest writers such as Dante, Petrarch, Manzoni, Pellico.

Though corruption brought about the fall of the Roman Empire, this disaster did not put an end to the glorious history of Rome. In the Middle Ages which followed, we see the full maturity of the Italian language and the marvelous work of the Church in converting and civilizing the barbarians.

Feudalism is described. The national aspirations of Cola di Rienzo receive brief emphasis. Famous persons of the Renaissance (Petrarch, Boccaccio, Columbus, Raphael, da Vinci, Ariosto, Michelangelo, Guicciardini) are briefly mentioned. The great men of the centuries that followed (Tasso, Galileo, G. B. Vico, L. A. Muratori, Parini, Alfieri, Beccaria) are also noted. The heroes of the Risorgimento (Garibaldi, Cavour, Victor Emmanuel) are vividly described. The history of Italy is brought down to present times. Everywhere, the stress seems to be placed on the fact that many important rôles in Italian history were played by obscure people.

Fiume was taken by D'Annunzio, but a weak government forced him to relinquish it. Under Mussolini, however, Fiume once again came into the possession of Italy. Italy was saved by Benito Mussolini. Many internal benefits have been brought about by the Duce: land improvements, elimination of strikes, the strengthening of the army, navy and air forces, and the conciliation between the Papacy and the State.

The geography section opens with a brief description of the world, followed by a study of the continents. The various European governments and those of the Western Hemisphere are described, taking into account principal rivers, mountains, cities and capitals, products, and industries. An important historical event connected with each city is also mentioned.

A similar description of Asia is given. Australia is but briefly discussed. The various African possessions of European states receive some space.

Sanitation and cleanliness are emphasized and much enlightenment on the elements of hygiene is given. The government has de-

clared war on gnats and flies. It has given special orders concerning flies which all should apply most rigorously.

L'Opera Nazionale Balilla, it is stated, seeks to safeguard the physical and moral health of young boys and to furnish sane recreation for them. 'The government is greatly concerned with the welfare of the youths. All that it asks, in recognition of the benefits that are showered on them, is obedience.

School Accomodations, Registration and Attendance

One of the best general measures of the efficiency of an educational system is the extent to which it succeeds in getting children into the schools and keeping them there. To determine in how far this was being accomplished in Italy, Professor Gentile, on assuming the office of Minister of Public Instruction, ordered a general elementary school census. The report of this census, which was published in 1923, showed that in 1922-23 there were 86,366 public elementary schools in Italy, and 112,073 teachers for these schools—sufficient to care for the total elementary school registration, which in 1921-22 was 3,987,763. But 9,805 of the teachers had very crowded classes (from 61 to 81 pupils); 10,653 teachers had less than 25 pupils; and 1,109 had less than 10 pupils.

The report revealed an extremely unsatisfactory situation in the matter of school buildings, since 45 per cent of the schools either lacked certain necessary buildings entirely or had buildings very badly adapted to the purpose of instruction. Provinces in the southern part of the country showed as high as 98 per cent of the schools unhoused,³ or badly housed; and even in Lombardy, where conditions were the best, about 30 per cent of the schools were without buildings or lacked adequate accomodations.

The census also revealed that a very large percentage of the children who came under the compulsory school law were not even registered in the schools, showing that the law had not been properly enforced. Of 4,504,948 children between six and twelve years of age, only 3,350,744, or 74 per cent were registered and in attendance in

³"Unhoused" is interpreted to mean that the schools met in residences.

the schools. The percentages of enrolment varied from a maximum of 97 per cent in Lombardy to a minimum of 41 per cent in Calabria.

The percentages of attendance varied from 94 in Venetia to 32 in Calabria.

Only 270 of the 8,354 municipalities were found to be administering their own schools, and most of these were in Liguria, Piedmont, Lombardy and Venetia. When the law of June 4, 1911, No. 487, was passed giving autonomy to municipalities in this matter, a large number of them were anxious to take advantage of the privilege, but in the years following many of them had found it impossible to preserve this autonomy on account of the impoverished condition of their treasuries.

With the census report as a working basis the Government immediately set about improving school conditions and increasing attendance. Where the schools were crowded, new classes were formed. Small classes were abolished in those places where they were deemed unnecessary.

By a Royal decree of October 31, 1923, No. 2410, the elementary schools were divided into two groups, classified and unclassified. The schools of the latter group were further divided as temporary and subsidized. The classified schools were those established and supported by school administrations and by the municipalities that preserved educational autonomy. The unclassified schools were those situated in rural areas where the school population was small. They were administered by the Illiteracy Committee, composed of five members of the boards of directors of delegated educational institutions. The Minister of Public Instruction was represented on this Committee by a central inspector. Temporary schools, with a shorter course than the classified schools, were organized in localities where there were forty children of school age. They were to be kept open provided that the attendance did not fall below fifteen and that the number of pupils promoted was not less than ten. In autonomous municipalities the temporary schools were established by the municipality and administered either by the municipality itself or by educational associations appointed by the State. In all other places, the temporary schools were established by the educational supervisor and administered by educational associations. In sparsely settled areas where, because of topographical conditions, schools could not be attended by more than fif-

teen children, subsidized schools could be opened with the authorization of the educational supervisor in parishes and in industrial and agricultural establishments. Such schools were to be administered by private persons who would receive a subsidy from the State. The amount of the subsidy would depend on the number of children who, at the end of the school year, received the lower elementary school certificate. Under this system of organization it would be possible to provide schools for all children.

On December 31, 1923, a Royal decree, No. 3126, was issued requiring the attendance of all children between the ages of six and fourteen years at day or evening schools. Until 1904, children had been required to attend school only until their ninth year. In 1904 the age limit was extended to the twelfth year.

On December 31, 1923, there was issued also Royal decree No. 3125, which provided substantial sums for the construction of new school buildings. The State assumed the responsibility of furnishing 1,000,000 lire annually for a period of ten years for payment of interest on loans made for this purpose. Grants for building purposes were made to the various municipalities in accordance with local conditions and the percentage of illiterates. Since 1926 approximately 12,000 new classified and unclassified schools have been established to care for approximately 200,000 new pupils each year. Much of this construction has been made possible through the cooperation of the people. This is especially true in the case of small villages, where the residents often volunteered their labor gratuitously to ensure the provision of a school building.

Italy, today, may well be proud of her new school buildings. They are beautiful; they have ample light and air, and they are provided with gardens, large grounds, and every hygienic convenience.

The teaching staff of the elementary school has also been substantially increased. As a result of this increase, and a redistribution of schools and teachers, the average number of pupils per teacher in 1933-34 was 45, varying from 32 per teacher in Piedmont to 55 in Venetia. The greatest increase in the number of teachers was in the South, especially in Sicily and Sardinia where illiteracy and truancy rates were particularly high. During the ten-year period 1922-23 to 1932-33, more than 200 new teachers were appointed in Sardinia and more than 1,000 in Sicily.

A comparison of the total number of classes in the schools of the country in 1921-22 and in 1933-34 shows an increase of more than 44,300 classes, the number having risen from 112,073 to 156,374. Thus while in 1921-22 there were 30.8 classes per 10,000 population, in 1933-34 there were 37.0 classes per 10,000. The regions of Venezia Tridentina with 71.8 classes per 10,000 population, Umbria with 57.0 and Marches with 53.8 had the best standing in 1932-33; whereas the regions of Puglia with 23.6 classes per 10,000, Sicily with 28.1 and Campania with 29.8 made the poorest showing.

The following table shows the number of children of school age and the number registered in schools in recent years as compared with 1921-22, before the Fascists assumed control.⁴

School Year	Number of children of school age	Number of children registered	Percentage registered
1921-22	4,504,948	3,350,744	74.3
1926-27	4,486,918	3,463,715	77.1
1927-28	4,600,401	3,702,130	80.4
1928-29	4,674,362	3,879,479	82.9
1929-30	4,748,862	4,153,784	87.4
1930-31	4,936,734	4,382,185	88.7
1931-32	5,108,174	4,544,368	88.9
1932-33	5,138,927	4,590,561	89.3
1933-34	5,159,065	4,621,553	89.5

It is seen that, beginning with 1926-27, there was a constant and steady increase in the number of children of school age; but there was a greater increase in the number of children registered in the schools. In a period of twelve years, attendance at school was increased by more than 15 per cent, that is, from 74.3 per cent in 1921-22, to 89.5 per cent in 1933-34.

⁴In 1922 the Fascist Government began to make a thorough and detailed survey of elementary school education. These statistical surveys have been published every year by the Ministry of National Education in cooperation with the Central Bureau of Statistics. These surveys enable us to follow, step by step, the growth, spread, and improvement in elementary education, and thus obtain an accurate picture of the present situation.

The results will appear even more striking if we compare the number of children of school age in 1921-22 (4,504,948), with the number in 1933-34 (5,159,065). Here we find an increase of over 654,000 children, whereas the school population during the same period increased from 3,350,744 to 4,868,730—an increase of over 1,500,000! Thus the increase in attendance was more rapid than the growth of the school age population. In 1921-22 there were 1,200,000 children not in attendance at school, while in 1932-33 there were only about 324,020 so situated.

The following table shows the number of children registered in elementary school in 1921-22 and in 1933-34 in each region of the country:

Regions	Pupils in public elementary schools on January 1, 1922	Pupils in public elementary schools at beginning of school year 1933-34
Piedmont	323,287	316,956
Lombardy	576,393	613,041
Liguria	120,842	129,823
Venetia	847,890	576,892
Venezia Giulia	—	127,731
Venezia Tridentina	—	103,160
Tuscany	259,888	312,350
Emilia	348,617	395,579
Marches	117,740	145,406
Umbria	71,721	82,716
Latium	119,744	266,312
Abruzzi	93,968	
Molise	23,783	190,731
Campania	224,271	378,376
Puglie	169,235	253,321
Lucania	33,389	53,579
Calabria	63,538	172,330
Sicily	256,391	385,277
Sardinia	60,037	117,973
Totals	3,710,744	4,621,553

The foregoing table, however, does not reveal the whole situation; to these figures for enrolment in public elementary schools we must add, for 1933-34, 142,331 pupils in private schools, and about

23,00 pupils in subsidized school. Therefore, the number of children of school age who were not in attendance was actually much less than is indicated here. Furthermore, there were many children who were receiving their education directly from their parents. Then, too, the compulsory school age, as has been noted, is from six to fourteen years; but there are many boys and girls who between the ages of ten and fourteen enter a secondary school. The number of these children, estimated at about 40,000 for the year 1933-34, should be subtracted from the total number of children of school age, since they are not included in the number attending elementary schools.

If all these facts are taken into consideration, it may be asserted without fear of contradiction, that the actual number of children not in attendance at school in 1933-34 was about 200,000, or about 5 per cent of the total school age population, as compared with over one million children not in attendance in 1922. This represents a truly striking achievement in public education, especially when it is remembered that as late as 1931 the illiteracy rate in children between the ages of six and fourteen was 23 per cent.

Another important question that was studied by the educational authorities of the new régime was the percentage of children promoted in the various grades. The 1923 census showed that the number of children who failed to be promoted was very high, with the result that not only were classes overcrowded, but the efficiency and discipline of the schools were reduced to a low standard. Of 3,350,746 children attending elementary school in 1922, only 2,136,374 or 63.8 per cent, were promoted in the various grades. There was some variation in the percentages of promotions in the different regions of the country, the maximum being in Piedmont (69 per cent) and the minimum in Calabria (57 per cent). In this respect too considerable improvement has been made during the Fascist régime. The percentage of children promoted increased from 63.8 per cent in 1921-22 to 74.2 per cent in 1933-34.

The compulsory school law has been extended to the blind and the deaf mutes of school age. In this connection it is of interest to note that the Government has created a normal school for training teachers for the blind, and has appropriated the sum of 2,000,000 lire annually for the maintenance of this school.

In the education of the blind and of deaf mutes, Italy is now in the vanguard of the most civilized nations. Charitable institutions,

which in the past merely took care of these children, have been rapidly transformed into educational institutions whose object is to prepare them for life and for a professional or artistic career. Every year the Braille Printing Press of Florence issues nine thousand volumes, which are distributed, directly or through the circulating libraries, to institutions for the education of the blind.

The principal cities—Rome, Milan, Florence, Turin, Bologna—have established special schools for children suffering from physical abnormalities of all types. The special methods used in these schools make it possible for abnormal children to follow the regular courses of the elementary school.

The number of open-air schools has increased during the Fascist régime. Whereas it was formerly believed that the open-air schools were merely for feeble and sickly children, the aim now is to give as many pupils as possible the benefit of out-door classes. This idea has been carried out extensively in Sicily, where climatic conditions are suitable for out-door life even in the winter months. In fact, Sicily has more than 40 open-air schools some of which are situated in small rural centers. There are excellent open-air schools too in Rome, Palermo, Naples, and Triest. At the present time Italy has about 250 open-air classes, with an attendance of more than 8,000 children. Of special interest is the plan introduced in the open-air schools of Naples, whereby pupils are required to cultivate small gardens of their own, and to care for domestic animals.

Nearly all open-air schools serve free lunches daily and supply any necessary medicines. In this way the health of the children is constantly guarded.

The enforcement of the compulsory school law rests with the *podestà* (mayor) of the municipality and the school inspectors. The *podestà* publishes and posts every year the list of all children who must attend school. The notice must be on the wall of the town hall for one month before the opening of school. Progressive penalties in the way of fines are enforced against parents or employers who profit from the labor of children of school age. To facilitate school attendance of children in agricultural centers the school directors is authorized to establish special hours and calendars of instruction to conform with local agricultural conditions.

Private Elementary Schools

The elementary schools of Italy are for the most part government institutions. The total number of children receiving an education in private schools is still very small—less than 4 per cent of the number attending government institutions.

The following statistics on private elementary schools reveal the extent to which children are being educated in private institutions:

	1927-28	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
<i>Private Schools</i>					
Boys		468	446	395	* 2,302
Girls	{ 2,551	973	944	853	
Mixed		1,172	1,266	1,145	
<i>Pupils</i>					
Boys	52,024	60,141	62,142	56,400	51,280
Girls	91,192	107,858	110,386	98,970	91,051
Total	143,216	167,999	172,528	155,370	142,331
<i>Directors</i>					
Men	405	395	391	352	—
Women	1,242	1,397	1,392	1,224	—
<i>Teachers</i>					
Men	839	751	764	724	740
Women	5,737	5,901	5,905	5,328	5,042

It will be seen that the number of pupils educated in private schools during 1933-34 showed a decided decrease from that of the previous year.

The Teaching Staff

In Gentile's philosophy we find that in true education there exists a complete harmony of relation between teacher and pupil. One cannot exist without the other. Even outside of his classroom, the real teacher cannot separate himself from the minds of his pupils, from their spiritual dispositions as these have formed in school. A teacher is not one who merely occupies a rostrum. Education is a process which joins two spirits indissolubly. During the ideal lesson both teacher

and pupil are so completely absorbed in a single spiritual experience that neither is sensible of the presence of the other. This communication between pupil and teacher is hindered by any form of pedantry or professional presumption. The teacher cannot bring about this spiritual unity with his pupils unless there is a certain creative activity at work within the pupils. The teacher cannot inject into the life of the student that which does not fundamentally derive from his own nature, any more than one can explain a point in a language unknown to the listener and expect him to profit by it. Therefore, the teacher who really wishes to exert an effective influence on his pupils must not try to free the soul of his pupils from their inveterate prejudices, in order to enlighten it and elevate it to the level of even elementary science. The school must always start from the actual personality of the child in order to lead him to an ever clearer consciousness of himself and his world.

The master who teaches does not repeat, but renews himself constantly in the spirit of the pupil. He, as well as the pupil, learns, ever becoming more expert and efficient. Progressive improvement in teaching skill is achieved only by the more vigorous mastery of one's own knowledge, a more perfect organization of one's own culture. Poor teaching is thin, fragmentary, broken, and incoherent, without life, warmth, or color. Good teaching flows like an impetuous stream of creative spiritual power. The good teacher is like the eloquent orator. Perhaps unconscious of means (which he has mastered to the point of being able to disregard them), he moves the spirit and carries it with him in proportion as he embodies the essentially spiritual qualities of absolute clearness, lucidity, and power of communication.

The work of the teacher is not a profession, but something different and greater. It is not a mastery, but a mission. The teacher is the spiritual parent of his pupils. Through him they enter the realm of self-creation, becoming a part of the universal and eternal process of culture, just as through their parents they have entered into the creative process of the world.⁵

⁵Quoted and condensed from Thompson, op. cit., p. 69-72.

Bearing these facts in mind it is easy to understand why Italian educators realized that the elementary school reforms could not be expected to give any satisfactory results without a similar radical revision of the preparation of teachers and of the legislation affecting teachers. Professor Gentile and his staff of experts knew that the crisis existing in the school was largely one of quality of personnel, especially in the case of the young teachers, who, on account of the War, had been compelled to discontinue their studies. During and after the War many persons had secured teaching positions in the elementary schools without the necessary academic qualifications.

The surest method of dealing with this situation was to hold a competitive examination for prospective teachers, not only because it would give the authorities an opportunity to test the general and academic preparation of the applicants, but also because it would compel the applicants to return to their books, which had been neglected and which, in some instances, had never been seriously studied. In other words, the object was to emphasize, by requiring a better preparation, the importance and dignity of the office to which they sought admission. A Ministerial Decree of April 12, 1923, authorized the competitive examinations for elementary school teachers. In all there were 23,819 applicants, of whom 20,271 actually took the written test. Of the latter, 7,451, or less than one-third, were admitted to the oral examinations. The results of the oral examinations lowered the percentage of successful candidates to about one-fourth of the total number. These figures are in themselves sufficient to show the crisis which existed in the preparation of teachers, with its necessarily detrimental effects on elementary instruction.

The examination commissions in their reports published in the *Bollettino Ufficiale* of the Ministry of Public Instruction stated that, in general, the tests revealed immature thought, insufficient preparation, and a serious lack of knowledge of simple and elementary facts. Some candidates, for example, did not know the names of provinces, districts, the more important roadways, the industries, and products of the regions in which they had always lived. In some subjects, and this was especially true of scientific subjects, many candidates did not know at all, or knew very imperfectly, the very facts that are taught in the elementary schools; others made statements so erroneous that they would cause surprise even if made by pupils in the lower grades. In one region it was found that several applicants had a very insuffi-

cient and inadequate knowledge of such masterpieces as Manzoni's *I Promessi Sposi*. But the most discouraging result was the revelation of undeveloped and immature minds in a large percentage of the applicants, and an inability to understand simple problems relating to the education of the masses. This general lack of preparation on the part of Italian teachers is not unique, however. In the United States much agitation has in recent years led to a serious consideration of the very general lack of training on the part of teachers. It has been estimated that from 25 to 40 per cent of the teachers in public schools in the United States, especially the one-room rural schools, are without a high school training. Probably less than one quarter of the teaching staff of all schools is made up of normal school graduates.

In order to raise the standards of elementary school teachers it was necessary to raise their status. This was done by means of the Royal decree of October 7, 1923, No. 2132, which reorganized the legal status of school teachers. It stipulates that the age limit for entering the teaching profession is thirty-five years, and that appointments must be based on competitive examinations which are to be held every two years. Should the list of successful candidates in a particular region be exhausted before the end of the two years, the eligible applicants from other regions may be appointed to fill vacant positions. This system is said to remove the possibility of appointing inadequate teachers. Furthermore, all new teachers receive first a temporary appointment, and they may obtain a permanent assignment only after the teachers already in the service have been provided for.

New teachers are appointed as adjuncts and are promoted to the permanent grade after a probationary period of three years. They are divided into three classes depending on whether they teach in boys', girls' or mixed schools. An examination is required for passing from one class to another, but the passage of teachers from a mixed class to the female or male class is permitted without examination.

Elementary school teachers are promoted on the basis of seniority provided, of course, that their work is satisfactory. Each educational director is required to submit an annual report on the work of each teacher under his jurisdiction. This report gives complete information on the ability, merits, education, family conditions, and interest of each teacher. The report also contains statistical information and other useful data on the condition of the school.

The question of salaries of elementary school teachers was studied,

and new salary schedules were fixed in the Royal decree of December 31, 1923, No. 2996. This decree authorized large increases in the salaries of state teachers and better salaries for teachers in autonomous municipalities and in schools in rural communities administered by supervisors. The salaries of teachers before the reform varied from a minimum of 3,100 lire to a maximum of 5,600 lire yearly. The salaries fixed by the Decree of December 31, 1923, varied from a minimum of 5,600 lire to a maximum of 9,500 lire yearly, in addition to the special compensation for active service varying from 300 to 500 lire yearly. Indemnities for teachers in large cities were discontinued, but 400 lire were to be given after eight years of service, and 500 lire for each succeeding period of eight years of service. Teachers with an alternate schedule were to receive 800 lire in addition to the regular salary; formerly only 300 lire were paid for an alternate program.

It has already been seen that the new salary schedules which went into effect on January 1, 1934, when the State took over all the elementary schools of the Kingdom, vary from a minimum of 5,900 lire a year for teachers in small communities to over 13,500 lire a year for teachers in large cities. In certain large cities the salary of teachers is even higher. In Milan, for example, it ranges from a minimum of 10,000 lire to a maximum of 16,000 lire; Rome provides for an initial salary of 9,400 lire and a maximum of 15,000 lire after 27 years of service; Turin pays a minimum of 8,100 lire, and a maximum of over 15,000 lire. Approximately the same schedules prevail in other large cities.

An important question to be answered with regard to the teaching staff is whether there is a sufficient number of teachers employed to care for all children of school age. It has been pointed out (page 79) that by a redistribution of teachers and schools and an increase in the number of teachers the new régime succeeded in reducing the size of extremely large classes. However, the teaching staff is still inadequate in numbers. This is not due entirely to lack of candidates properly qualified for teaching positions. Hundreds of such persons are to be found throughout Italy. The deficiency exists largely because of lack of funds to employ more teachers. The obvious inference from the facts is that more funds are needed so that more teachers may be appointed. It must be pointed out, however, that the appropriations of the Fascist Government for elementary education have been steadily increasing. In 1928-29 the total expenditures for

elementary education was 783,599,000 lire; by 1933-34 this sum had increased to 1,027,866,000 lire.⁶

In the five year period 1929-30—1933-34, which coincide with the world economic depression, the number of teachers in the public schools was increased from 94,148 to 102,474.

The number of teachers has increased not only in absolute figures, but also in proportion to the population. In 1922 there were 2.31 teachers per 1,000 inhabitants, or 110 children of the compulsory school ages; while in 1934 there were 2.43 teachers per 1,000 inhabitants, or one additional teacher for every 1,100 children obliged to attend elementary school.

⁶It is interesting to compare these figures with expenditures under the old régime. In 1904, the total State and municipal expenditures for elementary schools was 71 million; in 1915 the expenditures were 127 million lire.

CHAPTER V.

CLASSICAL, SCIENTIFIC, AND NORMAL SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION

Secondary Education Before the Gentile Reform

Under the pre-Fascist system of education, the secondary schools of Italy were of the following types: the *gymnasium*, which provided a five-year course; the *lyceum*, providing a three-year course; the *technical institute*, originally offering a three-year course, and later one of four years, divided into four sections, namely, physico-mathematical, commercial and accounting, agricultural, and industrial; the *technical school*, with a three-year course, for the preparation of students for either the technical institute or the *normal institute*; the *normal institute*, offering a course of three years, and preparing students to be elementary school teachers. In addition there were the modern division of the *lyceum-gymnasium*, designed for students who wished to pursue more advanced scientific studies than those offered by the physico-mathematical section of the technical institute; and the *teacher's course* given in isolated gymnasia for students of the gymnasium who wished to qualify as elementary school teachers.

All of these schools, however, were badly organized and poorly staffed. Their curricula were inadequate, and in many instances overlapped. The classes of the various types of schools were not clearly differentiated, and the courses of study had little order or continuity. Furthermore, the relationship between the administrative and teaching staffs was not well defined, and endless disputes and confusion resulted. In short, it was generally felt that the system of secondary education entirely failed to meet the requirements of a modern progressive society.

From time to time educators had studied the problems of the secondary schools, but prior to 1923 little or nothing was accomplish-

ed in the way of reform. As a rule an investigation of the school system was followed by recommendations for an extensive increase in the number of government and accredited schools and the indiscriminate admission of more and more pupils to these schools. As a result, new schools were constantly being established to accomodate a heterogeneous and unprepared body of students, and the demand for instructors increased to the point where mediocre and inefficient teachers were being appointed, and the examinations for teaching certificates were being made absurdly simple. There was a steady and enormous increase in the educational budget and in the number of graduates from secondary schools; but the status of general culture remained low.

Attempts were made to remedy this situation by increasing the number of school hours and by adding numerous subjects to the curricula. Thus the programs became badly overcrowded. Legislative and administrative machinery was multiplied in an effort to deal with the increasing difficulties, but a simple factor was apparently forgotten—the soul of the student. His culture, in harmony with the philosophy then in vogue, was conceived of as a collection of theories. In reality, it consisted of a mass of disconnected, useless, and obstructive information. Few students at the end of the secondary school course found themselves fitted to cope with practical, complex, and varied problems of life. The Fascist reforms, as we have seen, aimed directly at the correction of these defects. For the object of the new educational system is to give the student the necessary consciousness of his being, to enable him to transcend the empirical aims of his individualistic ego, and to prepare him for the fundamental problems of life.

The Fascist Secondary School Reform

The reorganization of the secondary schools of Italy was the most drastic of all the Fascist reforms. With inspiration from certain educational bills formerly presented to Parliament, and with the advice of other educators, particularly Ernesto Codignola, Professor at the Higher Normal School of Florence, Lombardo-Radice, Professor at the University of Catania, and Leonardo Severi, Counsellor of Staet, Gentile created a new system of secondary education. This provided for the reorganization of the secondary school in its relation to the elementary school and to the university, for the reform of its internal structure

and educational methods, for the elimination of unnecessary classes and schools and of superfluous subjects included in the various curricula, and for the improvement of the teaching staff.

The following changes in organization and program were made:

1. The loosely attached "additional or overflow classes" were eliminated; and every school was limited as to the number of students it might enroll.

2. The "modern sections" of the lyceum-gymnasias were abolished.

3. The number of isolated gymnasias was reduced to 95.

4. The teachers' courses in the isolated gymnasias were eliminated. The normal schools were reduced from 153 to 87, and their name changed to normal institutes.

5. Vocational and technical education was thoroughly revised. The agromony and the physico-mathematical sections of the technical institutes were eliminated; the industrial sections were transferred to the industrial institute; commercial and nautical institutes were reorganized.

6. In the place of the physico-mathematical section of the technical institute and of the modern sections of the lyceum gymnasias there was established the scientific lyceum.

7. Matriculation in the technical and normal institutes may be preceded by a preparatory four-year course in the gymnasium.

8. A lyceum for girls was established, but after a difficult existence of four or five years, it was discontinued.

9. The technical school was transformed into a complementary school for the masses. Its program was lightened and given unity of purpose. In 1928-29 this school was reorganized as a secondary school for vocational training.

10. A clear distinction was made between the various types of secondary schools; and the character and aims of each school were precisely defined.

11. A humanistic culture was placed at the basis of all forms of secondary education.

12. The programs of instruction were so arranged as to allow the teacher the greatest possible freedom, thus enabling him to develop individual initiative and responsibility.

13. Related courses of studies were grouped together and entrusted to the same instructor.

14. Examinations were conducted in such a manner as to ascertain the degree of maturity and the capacity of the student.

These changes were introduced by a series of ordinances. Among the first of these was the Royal decree of May 6, 1923, No. 1054,

which classified the secondary schools into three categories, corresponding to the diverse aims of secondary studies. These were:

1. Schools whose object would be to prepare students for the exercise of certain professions (technical institute), and for teaching positions in the elementary school (normal institute).

2. Schools whose object would be to prepare students for higher institutions (lyceum- gymnasium and scientific lyceum). This group included the lyceum for girls, which was designed to supplement the general culture of young girls who did not intend to continue their studies in higher institutions or to obtain a professional diploma. This institution, as has been noted, was soon abolished.

3. Schools whose object would be to complete the work of the elementary school the complementary schools. These schools were later discontinued, and in their place the Government established various types of vocational schools. These are the post-elementary secondary schools, with a three-year course, the continuation schools, which serve essentially for the preparation of boys and girls for domestic and civil occupations. The organization of the vocational school permits it to adapt itself to the most varied specializations. The continuation school, aside from its own aims, prepares for the various higher secondary vocational schools of agriculture, commerce, and industry. The continuation school has been fused with the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades of the elementary school, and with the lower vocational schools, thus becoming a secondary vocational school.

These categories were re-established rather than created, since they had existed in theory before, but their aims and characteristics as distinctive types of schools had become confused. By clearly differentiating these categories it was the intention to make each branch of secondary teaching a definite and rather close unit.

The Decree of May 6, 1923, also established a general division among the several types of schools on the basis of grade of studies. Schools designated as of the lower grade were the gymnasium, the lower course of the technical institute, and the lower course of the normal institute. Schools of the higher grade were the lyceum, the higher course of the technical institute, the higher course of the normal institute, the scientific lyceum, and the lyceum for girls, which was discontinued.

The Classical Lyceum-Gymnasium

The object of the classical lyceum-gymnasium is to prepare students for admission to all university faculties and other institutions of higher learning. In this type of secondary school the humanities and history are emphasized from the very beginning. The course in the gymnasium covers five years, the first three years constituting the lower course, the last two the higher course. The lyceum, which follows the gymnasium, has a three-year course and prepares students for the maturity examination for entrance to universities. Candidates for admission to the gymnasium must be at least ten years of age, must have completed the fourth grade of the elementary school, and must pass an entrance examination. The subjects of study in the gymnasium and lyceum are distributed as follows:

Subjects	Gymnasium				
	Hours per Week				
	I	II	III	IV	V
Italian language	7	7	7	5	5
Latin language	8	7	7	6	6
Greek language	—	—	—	4	4
Foreign language	—	3	4	4	4
History and geography	5	5	4	3	3
Mathematics	1	2	2	2	2
	—	—	—	—	—
Total	21	24	24	24	24

Subjects	Lyceum		
	Hours per Week		
	I	II	III
Italian literature	4	4	3
Latin literature	4	4	3
Greek literature	4	4	3
History	3	3	3
Philosophy and political economy	3	3	3
Mathematics and physics	4	4	5
Natural sciences, chemistry, and geography	3	2	3
History of art	—	2	2
	—	—	—
Total	25	26	25

The law stipulates that each lyceum-gymnasium must have one complete course of classes, although as many as four complete courses may be established in not more than one-third of these institutions.

The Scientific Lyceum

The object of the scientific lyceum is to develop and strengthen the preparation of students expecting to enter the university faculties of science, and medicine and surgery, or the schools of engineering, architecture, or pharmacy. It is a new type of institution, somewhat similar to the physico-mathematical section of the former technical institute and modern lyceum.

The course in the scientific lyceum lasts four years. Students who apply for admission must have completed four years of the gymnasium or the lower division of some other secondary school. The scientific lyceum is the only type of secondary school which has no special preparatory division; a student may be admitted from the lower division of any secondary school. For this reason the first class of the scientific lyceum is composed of a heterogeneous mass of students—a condition which renders the first year's work difficult for both pupils and instructors. An inquiry conducted by the Department of Secondary Education revealed that of 9,015 students admitted to the first-year class of the scientific lyceum between 1923-24, the year it was first established, and 1929-30, when the inquiry was made, 5,101, or 56 per cent, were from the lower course of the technical institute; 1,874, or 21 per cent, from the gymnasium; 1,596, or 18 per cent, from the complementary school which has since been abolished; and 444 or 5 per cent, from the lower course of the normal institute. It is interesting to note that during the first two years of the existence of the scientific lyceum there was a large enrolment of students from the gymnasium, that after the second year, the largest group was from the technical institute, and that the number of students coming from the normal institute, although still very small, is on the increase.

The program of studies of the scientific lyceum includes the following subjects:

Subjects	Hours per Week			
	I	II	III	IV
Italian literature	4	4	3	3
Latin literature	4	4	4	4
Foreign language	4	4	3	3
History	3	3	2	2
Philosophy and political economy	—	—	4	4
Mathematics and physics	5	5	6	6
Natural sciences, chemistry & geography	3	3	2	2
Drawing	3	2	2	2
	—	—	—	—
Total	26	25	26	26

The essential difference between the curriculum of the scientific lyceum and that of the classical lyceum is that the former includes the study of a modern language and drawing, and the sciences, especially mathematics, are more stressed than in the classical lyceum.

Teacher Training in Normal Institutes

Previous to the Gentile reform, teachers were prepared in normal schools which offered a three-year course. The normal school was included among the secondary schools of the second grade. Students were admitted to the normal schools usually from the technical or complementary schools. As a result of the Gentile reform the normal school has been replaced by the normal institute, a strictly professional school, which aims solely at the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools.

The course of study of the normal institute is divided into two sections—a lower course of four years, and a higher one of three years. The program of studies in both divisions is shown in the following tables:

Subjects	Lower Course Hours per Week			
	I	II	III	IV
Italian language	8	4	4	4
Latin language	—	6	6	6
History & geography	4	2	2	2
Mathematics	3	2	2	3
Foreign language	—	4	4	4
Drawing	3	2	2	2
Music and singing	2	2	2	2
Musical instrument*	2	2	2	2
	—	—	—	—
Total	20	22	22	23

Subjects	Higher Course Hours per Week		
	I	II	III
Italian language and literature	4	5	4
Latin language and literature	5	4	4
Philosophy & pedagogy	4	5	6
History	3	4	4
Mathematics & physics	3	4	4
Natural sciences, geography, and hygiene	3 2	2 1	3 1
Music and singing	2	1	1
Drawing	2	2	2
Musical instrument*	—	—	—
Total	26	26	27

An examination of the foregoing program shows that special emphasis is given to the Italian and Latin languages, and in the higher course, to philosophy and pedagogy. The former normal school has in reality been transformed into a classical school. To every normal institute there is annexed an elementary school and a kindergarten wherein students receive practical training in teaching.

In every region and in almost every city of Italy post-graduate courses are provided for teachers. The bulletins of the educational supervisors reveal the vast amount of work that is being done in this

* Elective

connection. Some of these courses are of a permanent nature while others have been established for a limited period. The widespread interest in post-graduate study for teachers is largely due to the early efforts of Gentile. He declared that it is most necessary for teachers to participate in university work. "The teacher," he said, "is led to look upon learning as something quite finished, rounded out, enclosed in definite formulas, rules and laws, all of which have been ascertained once for all and are no longer susceptible of revision." In other words, the teacher is inclined to look upon his learning not as a developing process, but as something definitely moulded and stereotyped. From this he concludes that a certain kind of knowledge may serve as a corner for the whole school edifice. Gentile, therefore, warns teachers "to be constantly on their guard against the dangers of routine, against the belief that they have but to repeat the same old lesson in the same classroom, to the same kind of distant, blank faces staring at them in dreary uniformity from the same benches." Teachers may be called educators, he points out, only as long as they feel that each minute of their life's work is a new minute, and that education is a problem that constantly stimulates their ingenuity to new solutions.

Curricula and Ideals of Secondary Institutes

The new programs of studies in secondary schools, which have necessarily been modified from time to time between 1924 and the present day, represent the most genuine expression of the new idealistic philosophy of Italy. We have already mentioned that before the Fascist reforms the printed book was not only the sole source of knowledge, but actually dominated the school. The only aim of students was to obtain the maximum information from the more abridged sources. This purely quantitative conception of education had completely discredited the school, where all study was reduced to a purely abstract mnemonic effort. The Gentile programs take instruction back to the live sources of culture—the classics which would the personality of the student. Latin and the classics have not only been introduced in all types of secondary schools, but have been given a prominent place in the curriculum.

It must be clearly understood, however, that the study of the ancient classics under the new régime does not mean the simple learning

of grammar and words. Rather, it is referred to the ancient world as a whole and all that the books contain or suggest. The object is to use the Latin and Greek writings to mould the spiritual personality of students. The pupils study the various stages by which Italy and her people have attained their present civilization. A certain amount of time must naturally be spent in acquiring a knowledge of the language, but after this preliminary stage, the new programs require students to read the original texts in such a manner as to "live," as it were, in the classical world. They must study seriously the masterpieces of classical literature, the most eloquent documents of the spiritual world from which Italy took its origin.

Because of this new purpose in secondary education it is argued, with justice, that the culture of Italy has become distinctly Greco-Roman. But Greece and Rome are the sources of the intellectual life of all civilized modern peoples, especially Italians. Both Greece and Rome have given us poetry and philosophy, oratory and history, sculpture and architecture. We have inherited from them geometry, and the rudiments of scientific observation, grammar, logic, politics, law, in fact almost everything in the sphere of humanistic learning.

The Romans and Greeks invented all forms of poetical literature, the epic, the lyric, the dramatic, the pastoral, the didactic, the satiric, the epigrammatic. Ancient history is the key to all history, not only to political history, but to the record of the changing thoughts and beliefs of races and peoples. Greek history sets before us a host of striking characters in the fields of thought and imaginative creation as well as in the fields of political strife, the abstract and the concrete always in the closest touch with one another. So also Roman institutions are almost as fertile a field for study as the Greek mind. For an Italian youth to carry in his mind the pictures of a long-past world and turn back to them from the anxieties of the present day gives him a refreshment of spirit as well as a wide view of what man has been, and is, and may be hereafter. To have immortal verse rise every day into his memory, to recall the sombre grandeur of Aeschylus and the pathetic beauty of Virgil, to gaze at the soaring and multi-coloured radiance of Pindar, to be soothed by the sweetly flowing rhythms of Theocritus—what an unfailing delight must these experiences afford the student!

The scope and content of all other studies have been similarly

modified. In the Italian courses the secondary school student is no longer given formal instruction on the writing of compositions; instead he is assigned concrete projects such as the preparation of reports on subjects of general interest. Literature is taught in such a way as to develop taste, interest, and appreciation. Memory work has been entirely eliminated. In the field of history the student is no longer required to memorize insignificant dates; he studies the various periods to acquire a "consciousness" of his past from which his present and future ideals must originate.

Philosophy, which heretofore was limited to instruction in logic, psychology, and ethics, now includes the study of the works of the great thinkers—Plato, Aristotle, Bacon, Descartes, Spinoza, Vico, Kant, Hegel.

The position of modern languages in the curriculum has been made more stable, not only by allotting them more time in the newer programs, but by devising more practical methods of instruction. Formerly German, French, and English were taught very much as Latin and Greek were approached—through formal exercises in grammar and the memorizing of literary selections. Today emphasis is placed on speaking and the understanding of the spoken word. The newspaper and conversation on everyday topics supplement the study of literary classics.

Instruction in the sciences in Italy has suffered in the past largely because of the scantiness of resources, but it is now realized that scientific knowledge is well-worth having, not only for its direct effects in promoting the material welfare of mankind, but also for its power to strengthen the moral purposes of humanity.

The study of the Catholic religion, which has been obligatory for elementary school pupils since 1923-24, has also been made compulsory for all pupils in secondary, vocational, and art schools, in accordance with the law of June 5, 1930, No. 824, which carried out the provisions of article 36 of the Concordat of February 11, 1929. Religion is taught by a priest or by a layman, who, in the opinion of the principal of the school and the Catholic Church authorities, possesses special qualifications for the teaching of the subject. There are no examinations or gradings in religion.

Pupils with conscientious objections are excused from the study

of the Catholic religion at the request of their parents or guardians. However, very few students seek to be excused from the study of the subject. In 1933-34, of a total 198,288 pupils registered in government, standardized and accredited classical, scientific and normal high schools, 194,706, or 98.1 per cent, attended the courses in religion.

The Italian secondary school aims to affect the integral, moral, intellectual, and physical education of students. Accordingly, the Royal decree of March, 15, 1923, No. 684, introduced important changes in physical education. Under the old régime, this subject had been neglected, largely owing to lack of money and teachers. Not only were gymnasiums found in few of the schools, but in many cases physical training was given under such unfavorable conditions as to imperil the health of students. Yet it was impossible to improve these conditions without the expenditure of huge sums. It was, therefore, decided to entrust this subject to the National Organization for Physical Education. Since 1926, however, physical education has been under the auspices of one of the major institutions of the Fascist régime, the *Balilla* Institute. Secondary school students are required to take the courses offered by the Institute, and they cannot be promoted from one class to another unless they pass the examination in physical training.

Examinations

Admission to all first-grade secondary schools—the first year of the gymnasium, the lower course of the technical institute, and the lower course of the normal institute—is based on an entrance examination. A student must be at least ten years of age before he can take this examination, and he must have completed the fourth grade of the elementary school. The entrance examination includes the following subjects: Italian, arithmetic and elementary geometry, drawing, and a general oral examination to determine the general preparation of students in cultural subjects. In addition, there is a supplementary examination consisting of a written report on some general subject. This test lasts three hours and is designed to determine the type of secondary school for which the student is best fitted. Pupils who fail to pass this examination must either continue their studies in a secondary vocational school or else go to a private high school.

An important result of this system of entrance examinations is the

limitation of the number of students in government schools. In fact, the maximum number of students in each institute is fixed by law. The Government proposes to instruct only the best among the students of secondary school age, and to turn over to private institutions the large number of those who are considered unfit to be educated by the State. Italian educators maintain that the State is obliged to furnish elementary instruction for all children, but that it should provide secondary and higher education, only for those who deserve it, not for all who seek it. Professor Rodolfo Mondolfo, of the University of Bologna, declares that one of the objects of the educational reform is to reduce the number of graduates who have been lowering the intellectual standards of schools.

Special proficiency examinations must be passed for admission to the fourth year of the gymnasium, to the first year of the higher course of the technical or normal institute, and to the first class of the scientific or classical lyceum. There are also maturity examinations for students who have completed the classical lyceum, the scientific lyceum, or the lyceum of art, and who intend to continue their education. Qualifying examinations are given for students who have completed the technical or normal institute, and who are prepared to be accountants, surveyors, or elementary school teachers.

There are three important characteristics of all these examinations. First, examinations are not based strictly on the work covered in class, but aim to ascertain the synthetic and organic capacity of the student's mind. Second, examinations are held before commissions composed almost entirely of professors from government schools. Professors, however, are not permitted to examine pupils from their own schools. Third, examiners are selected in part from among those who teach in grades higher than that to which the candidate seeks admission.

Examinations in all types of secondary schools are difficult, as is indicated by the large percentage of children who fail in them. In some examinations, as many as 36 per cent of the students fail to receive passing marks. The following table gives the results of the various types of examinations in government, standardized, and accredited schools in 1933-34:

Per Cent Receiving Passing Grades in 1933 ³⁴

Schools	Government schools				Standardized and Accredited Schools		
	Male	Female	Total		Male	Female	Total
<i>Gymnasia</i>							
Admission to 1st year	84.9	91.3	87.1		90.8	95.7	91.9
Admission to 4th year	77.2	84.9	79.4		83.3	82.7	83.8
<i>Lyceums</i>							
Admission to 1st year	74.8	86.2	77.1		80.9	93.0	82.0
Classical maturity	67.3	80.3	69.1		—	—	—
<i>Scientific lyceums</i>							
Admission to 1st year	67.1	78.6	69.3		86.0	82.0	82.7
Scientific maturity	64.2	80.8	65.7		—	—	—
<i>Technical institutes¹</i>							
Admission to lower course	83.9	88.7	85.0		78.1	79.3	78.3
Admission to higher course	72.1	81.7	73.8		74.4	78.9	74.8
Qualifying—accounting	71.8	80.4	72.8		—	—	—
Qualifying—surveying	72.4	100.0	72.5		—	—	—
<i>Normal institutes</i>							
Admission to lower course	77.0	84.3	81.4		91.4	92.3	92.2
Admission to higher course	56.5	74.2	64.9		75.2	81.3	80.4
Qualifying—teaching	58.3	74.6	65.8		—	—	—

¹The statistics given for the technical institutes are for the school year 1932-33.

It is interesting to note that the percentage of girls receiving passing grades in all types of examinations exceeds that of boys. This is true of all types of examinations in all institutes.

The examination programs for classical, scientific, and normal high schools were modified by the Royal decree of June 29, 1933, No. 892. Since these programs help us to gain an idea of the content and scope of the courses in each subject studied in these three types of schools, and since they throw much light on the spirit of the teaching the full text of this law is given in Appendix.

Present Status of Italian Secondary School Education

In estimating the results of the educational reform in Italy it must be remembered that both elementary and secondary education are conceived from the standpoint of the student as a human being and a future citizen of Italy, not as a future doctor, artist, or engineer. As far as possible into adolescence, all children are entitled to the untraveled development of their capacities, in order that, to the extent of their ability, and irrespective of social and economic accident, they may participate in the enjoyment of the cultural heritage of humanity. This is best for them as human beings; in the long run, it is also best for them as breadwinners. Higher education must be broad in purpose, easily accessible, and if it is to be really efficient, obtainable only on the basis of ability and earnestness.

The Italian secondary school programs do not provide for mere sense-training but emphasize inductive thinking. The student receives a thorough general preparation, except in the natural sciences, where his knowledge is largely theoretical, since there is little or no equipment in the schools for individual work in physics, chemistry or biology. This deficiency in scientific preparation is evident in the examinations. The examination in physics lasts thirty minutes and is oral. In chemistry, natural sciences and geography the examination consists of about a fifteen minutes' test. These tests, of course, contrast rather sharply with the examination in mathematics, which lasts five hours, and the Latin examination, which is given in two sections, one, a written test which may last five hours, and the other a twenty-five minute oral test. The written test in foreign languages lasts five hours, and the oral thirty minutes.

In conclusion, it may be said that the Italian secondary school curricula have been generally enriched under the new régime, and that the student now leads a normal and wholesome life—his interests awakened, his enthusiasm kindled, his powers of intellectual application challenged and disciplined.

Discipline

The discipline of students is entrusted to directors and professors. Punishments range from warnings, given either privately or in class, to expulsion from all institutions of the Kingdom for a period of three years. Directors of secondary schools stress to their students the importance of order, discipline, and a profound love for their country.

The following extract from the inaugural address of the school year 1926-27, delivered by Professor Enrico Balducci, principal of the Royal Lyceum-Gymnasium "Dante" of Florence, before students and their families, shows how these points are emphasized in the schools:

. . . . Last year at the beginning of our classes, when I came to speak to you with paternal frankness, I said that I would summarize the educational program in three words: discipline, order, decorum.

An essential condition for the regular work of any institute, as for the progress of all nations, in *discipline*, which is the conscious subjection of the individual to a superior reason, and to the authority which this personifies; it is the subordination of the individual interests to the wider and collective interests. And in the discipline of all is order, which must be the "common rule of life."

The times of utter disorder and confusion have come to an end—times when even through the corridors and classrooms of this building there resounded uncontrolled shouts of tumultuous mobs, and strikes were attempted merely for the purpose of annihilating everything. Law and authority and the force of the national government have been re-established everywhere; and the school has again found itself, and has resumed its best traditions.

A man with a powerful mind, Giovanni Gentile, by infusing new lymph, new blood into the system, has accelerated and reinvigorated its rhythm, has elevated it to a place of dignity, and has earned the gratitude of Italians.

Gentile's chief merit is that of having aroused in the youth of the country a new consciousness of their duties, of having made clear that no civil progress is possible except through the vigorous observance of

the laws which govern us; of having diffused the belief that true culture is acquired only through perseverance, constant sacrifice of oneself, and work; and of having bent with a firm hand even the most riotous to what is the very necessity of life. It is to his credit that the memory of unworthy, uproarious assemblies is now remote from us, that order has followed the former chaos, that fervour for study has been revived with order and discipline, and that love of knowledge has been enkindled in you.

From this concept of discipline and order we shall permit no deviation. Those among you who fail in the respect which is due to your superiors, or fail in your duties, will have, according to the sanction of the laws, the severe punishment which you deserve.

The school cannot welcome or tolerate unworthy persons.

From you I shall require the observance of decorum, moral conduct, and dignity, under any and all circumstances. Decorum, first of all, in your person, which is incompatible with slovenliness or with negligence in dress or appearance; decorum in your actions, in your exterior bearing, in your relations with your companions and with your superiors.

Everything which is distasteful to well-bred persons should be far from you. Hence you must never use vulgar language or unbecoming gestures; you must never be involved in quarrels, and you must treat everybody with respect.

You should accustom yourselves to feel, if I may use this term, the religion of the environment in which you are, the sanctity of the work which is done in this environment, which is the temple of learning.

For that reason you will enter and leave in good order; on entering as well as on leaving you will extend the arm in the Roman fashion to salute the Tricolor, which is the symbol of the Fatherland, and with that the pillar which is raised to the memory of your comrades, who consecrated themselves to their country, who drenched with their blood the clods contested on the field of battle, and who, purified by their sacrifice, here watch over us.

You will enter your classrooms in order, and you will attend to the fulfillment of your duties.

And around the Sacred Banner, among the cherished memories of the departed Great Ones, we shall gather together on memorable holidays of the year, in ritual celebrations, in which we shall temper our hearts to the faith of our Fathers and shall form our conscience.

Thus the school, no longer severed from the common life, as it was in the past, now works in unison with the nation, whose progress it will second, whose aspirations it will further. It will not only instruct; it will be the forger of souls; it will form worthy citizens; it will be the most valid garrison of unflinching future greatness.

And you will all be soldiers of duty. You will be *Avanguardisti*, the vanguard of other soldiers, always ready at any call, always happy to con-

secrete yourselves to our fatherland, to its welfare and glory.

When you go out of the narrow confines of this building, you will proudly remember the years you have passed here, and you will always relive in your memory the teachings imparted. While, as far as we are concerned, the knowledge that we have contributed to the common good, in proportion to our forces; that we have worthily fulfilled our mission, our sacred mission; that we have tempered your souls to the most pure, the most noble ideals; that we have not lived a useless life—all these things will be sufficient comfort and reward for our labours.

With this faith, I extend my greetings to the illustrious educational supervisor who, with his presence, has added to the importance of this inaugural ceremony, to the Public Works Administrator, Commendatore Saccomanni, to the other authorities present, to your families, both absent and present, to my colleagues and to you all; and in the august name of His Majesty the King I declare open the academic year 1926-27, and I invite you all to shout: Long live Italy, Long live the King, Long live il Duce, Long live the National Government.

Secondary school pupils enroll in large numbers in Fascist youth organizations where they receive thorough training in discipline and where love of the mother country is stressed. In 1933-34 out of 198,288 pupils in government, standardized, and accredited high schools, 190,434 or 96 per cent were registered in one of the several divisions of the *Balilla* organization, as follows:

Enrolment in youth organizations 1933-34

		Young Boy	Little Italian	Young Italian	Young Girl
		Fascists	Girls	Girls	Fascists
Institute	Bailia				
Isolated Gymnasia	10,378	7,148	3,877	2,444	44
Lycæum-Gymnasia	30,316	29,163	12,001	9,647	1,302
Scientific Lycæums	—	3,442	—	590	206
Normal Institutes	7,720	8,933	19,350	22,924	3,992
	—	—	—	—	—
Total	48,414	48,686	35,228	35,605	5,544

Fees

The yearly tuition fee for each class of the classical lyceum, the scientific lyceum, and the higher course of the technical institute is 300 lire, payable bi-monthly; for each of the three other lower classes of the gymnasium and the lower course of the technical institute, it is 160 lire; for each class of the lower course of the normal institute, 100 lire; for each class of the higher course of the normal institute, 150 lire. All students are also required to pay 16.50 lire yearly for physical education and ten lire for miscellaneous expenses, e.g., reports, secretary's fee, and contribution to the school fund. The following table shows the various fees for each type of secondary school:

Institutes	Entrance Examination	Maturity Examination	Promotion Examination	Tuition	Qualifying Examination	Diploma
	(lire)	(lire)	(lire)	(lire)	(lire)	(lire)
Classical or Scientific Lyceum**	150	60	100	300	250	100
Gymnasium	60	60	50	160*	—	—
Normal Institutes:						
Lower course	—	30	30	100	—	—
Higher course	50	30	30	150	150	50

* The tuition fee for the fourth and fifth years is 200 lire each.

** The fee for the maturity examination is 300 lire. The entrance examination fee for the first class of a secondary school of the first grade is 60 lire.

Poor but meritorious pupils may be totally or partially exempted from the payment of fees. In 1933-34, of a total of 198,288 pupils in government, standardized and accredited schools, 53,669 pupils or 27 percent, were exempted from the payment of fees, as follows:

Pupils Exempted from Payment of Fees in 1933-34 and Reasons therefore

Institutes	For Merit	Because Belonging to Large Families	For Other Reasons
Isolated Gymnasias	3,026	1,785	1,242
Lyceums-Gymnasias	13,119	6,152	5,467
Scientific Lyceums	610	625	550
Normal Institutes	7,918	4,804	8,371
Total	24,673	13,366	15,630

Every secondary school has a special fund, maintained by local initiative and general contributions, from which to aid deserving students. This fund also serves to promote educational tours, visits, and other integral forms of education. The following table gives the total amount of such school funds in government and standardized high schools for the year 1933-34:

Institutes	Government Schools		Standardized and Accredited Schools	
	Amount available (Thousand lire)	Expendi- tures	Amount available (Thousand lire)	Expendi- tures
Isolated Gymnasias	2,324	296	384	59
Lyceum-Gymnasias & Isolated Lyceums	9,829	1,354	659	104
Scientific Lyceums	1,814	175	56	10
Normal Institutes	5,050	738	257	85
Total	19,017	2,567	1,456	258

Instructors

All secondary school instructors are chosen under the direction of the Ministry of National Education by competitive examination for

each especially indicated vacancy, in the order in which their names occur on the graded list. The age limit for competitors is forty-five, unless candidates have previously been appointed as instructors and have obtained a pension in other branches of the government service. Only those who hold a university degree are admitted to these examinations, exception being made for teachers of special subjects, i.e., singing, penmanship, etc., in which case other special qualifications are required. Men and women compete on equal terms. Examining commissions, which are selected by the Minister of National Education, are composed of a majority of university professors, and a minority of secondary school teachers in active service. Unless the post in question is accepted by the successful candidate, he or she does not have an opportunity for another post without another examination. Transfers for teachers already in the service may be granted only by the Minister of National Education.

On receiving his appointment, a teacher assumes the title of adjunct for three years, after which he becomes a full-time instructor, provided that his work during this period has been satisfactory.

Adjunct and full instructors are classified in three categories, as follows:

CATEGORY A

Instructors in:

Classical lyceum
Scientific lyceum
Higher Course of Technical
Institute
Higher Course of
Normal Institute
Gymnasium

CATEGORY B

Instructors in:

Literary subjects in lower
course of gymnasium
Lower course of Technical
Institute
Lower course of Normal
Institute
Drawing in Normal and
Technical Institutes, and
Scientific Lyceums

CATEGORY C

Instructors in:

Kindergartens attached to
Normal Institutes
Music and singing in Normal
Institutes

Secondary school directors are chosen from among full-time instructors, and from others possessing administrative ability. Directors and professors are automatically retired from service at the age of seventy.

The new educational laws are very strict with regard to the work of instructors, who are now required to give serious attention to the teaching of their subjects. Teachers are responsible for the methods of instruction and for the selection of material. They may make a choice of material from the extensive lists included in the school programs, and may impart instruction in the manner they deem best suited to the various grades, within the limits imposed by the requirements of coordination with other courses of study established by the head of the school and the college of professors.

No instructor is allowed to practice any liberal profession if it interferes with his regular work at school. A law provides somewhat significantly that "coaching" is forbidden as a means of occupation to teachers in the case of students of their own school, and that special notice must be given of such private tutoring, and that no more than two students may be taught at the same time.

Augusto Turati, in an article on "Professors and Fascism" published in 1930 in the *Annali della Istruzione Media*, an official high school publication, outlines what he considers to be the duty of a high school teacher. He says:

What I believe to be the specific duty of a high school professor in the Italian society of today and tomorrow, I have had occasion to state on several other occasions; I mentioned it recently while inaugurating the work of the National Council of the Fascist High School Group.

I have no hesitation in reiterating in this review, where high school problems are studied from all standpoints, what I consider the most important aspect of the work of a high school teacher, namely, its national or Fascist character. . . . The teacher must not sympathize vaguely and in a half-hearted way with what Fascism holds most high; nor must he passively obey the orders and regulations of the Fascist Régime. His soul must vibrate in unison with the Fascist conscience, which has its ethical and political imperatives, its cultural designs, and its firm faith in the ideal forces of the Fascist Revolution. The professor who does not feel himself drawn into the vortex of this renovating flame, who still wastes his time burning particles of incense before some insignificant idol venerated in the past, who still believes in other cultural systems, is a spirit fatally entangled in a net of doubt and uncertainty. His word in the school will be dubious, wavering; it will lack the vitality and courage of a ma-

ture and tested conviction; and it will be a word without echo, a word uttered by an exhausted being; a word unheard, like that of one who has been vanquished.

The following table gives the number of principals and teachers in the various types of high schools in 1933-34:

	Principals		Teachers	
	Government Institutes	Standardized and Accredited Institutes	Government Institutes	Standardized and Accredited Institutes
Institutes				
Isolated Gymnasias	114	64	966	469
Lyceum-Gymnasias	188	68	4,324	922
Scientific Lyceums	53	8	484	77
Normal Institutes	112	62	2,636	854
Total	467	202	8,410	2,322

Of a total of 669 principals in government, standardized and accredited schools, 72 were women; and of 10,732 teachers, 4,427 were women, 3,447 in government institutions and 980 in standardized and accredited schools.

Salaries of Instructors

The Italian secondary school instructor has always been poorly paid. Before the War some instructors received as little as 700 lire yearly. In 1914, after certain improvements had been made, a full instructor of a gymnasium began with 2,500 lire yearly. In the lyceum the salary was increased 500 lire yearly, until a maximum of 7,500 lire was reached. According to the 1923 schedules the salaries of teachers in secondary schools vary from a minimum of 5,100 lire to a maximum of 14,300 lire a year for the highest paid instructors. The initial salary of a full instructor in Category A is 8,300 lire a year, and with his regular increases he may hope to receive 13,300 lire a year after twenty-five years of service. Substitute or assistant instructors are paid only for the number of hours of actual teaching. For each hour per week of instruction, the yearly salary varies from 200 to 350 lire, depending on the subject of instruction. Assistant teachers

of kindergartens connected with secondary schools receive 400 lire monthly. These figures show that the salaries of Italian secondary school instructors are still low. In many cases salaries are eked out by permitting the teachers to hold two or three positions.

*Financial Cooperation between State and Local Corporations
for the Support of Schools*

The financial cooperation between the State and local organizations for the support of secondary schools has been simplified as a result of the Gentile reform. In this connection it is of interest to note that the regulations existing under the previous régime were very old, some being in force since 1816. It is not surprising, therefore, that the finances of schools were in an incredibly chaotic and uncertain condition. According to the old régime, secondary schools were supported in one of the following ways:

1. By the State.
2. By the State with the aid of local corporations.
3. By local corporations with the aid of the State.
4. Entirely by local corporations.

The rate of the various contributions varied in each individual case. Some corporations were required to pay nominal sums; others paid a very large share of the total expenses. The royal decrees of May 6, 1923, No. 1054, January 11, 1923, No. 133, and March 11, 1923, No. 685, attempted to simplify the whole matter of financial support of secondary schools. In the case of technical institutes and scientific lyceums the provinces are required to furnish the school buildings and keep them in good condition; the buildings for all other secondary schools are provided by the municipalities. Both provinces and municipalities are responsible for the equipment, lighting, and heating of the buildings and for all office expenditures. They are responsible also for the educational and scientific equipment of technical institutes and scientific lyceums. In all other secondary institutes this is provided by the State. In general, the State defrays the expense for the personnel of the offices of the secretaries of the lyceums, gymnasia, and normal institutes. The provinces defray these expenses for the scientific lyceums and technical institutes. The mechanics and assistants connected with technical institutes and scientific lyceums are paid by the respective provinces, except those of the tech-

nical institutes of Basilicata and Sardinia, who are paid by the State. The mechanics of lyceums and gymnasia are paid by the State, except those in Sicily, who are paid by the municipalities. Provincial capitals with a population under 30,000 must contribute 60,000 lire a year for each lyceum and gymnasium; those with over 30,000 inhabitants, 80,000 lire a year for each school; and those with over 100,000 inhabitants, 100,000 lire yearly for each school.

In common with other educational institutions, the secondary schools are not, in many cases, suitably housed. The use of convents and other old buildings poorly adapted to educational needs is still quite common. Steady improvement is being made in school accommodations, however. Each year the Ministry of National Education spends about 200,000,000 lire on secondary schools and physical education.

The Royal decree of September 27, 1923, requires that every secondary institute in Italy be supplied with certain basic essentials in the matter of equipment. It is stipulated that each institute must have a teacher's library, a student's library, maps, works of art, and in the case of lyceums, laboratories of physics, chemistry, and natural sciences. As has been stated, however, laboratory accommodations are still far from adequate.

Many schools have rooms and apparatuses for projection. Each institute publishes a yearbook, called the *Annuario*, which contains the studies and writings of the professors.

Distribution of Secondary Schools

An early problem solved by the Fascist Government was that of the number and distribution of secondary schools. Experience had shown that the distribution of schools in the various regions when left to the mercy of private initiative or parliamentary vicissitudes did not meet local requirements. The location of schools was not based on any scientific data, such as, population, area, and the cultural and technical needs of the different regions. In some sections there was an abundance of schools; in others there were none at all. Some provinces had as many as eight lyceums, some did not have any; others were without a technical institute. The province of Rome, for example, had five normal schools, whereas five other provinces did not have a single institution for the preparation of teachers. A few provinces did not have any technical schools; others had as many as four-

teen. The decree of May 6, 1923, provided that no new secondary institute could be opened except by special legislation.

The number of government, standardized, and accredited high schools has increased during the Fascist régime, especially since the economic depression. The following table shows the extent of this increase between the academic years 1927-28 and 1933-34.

*Number of Government, Standardized and Accredited
Secondary Schools, 1927-28 to 1933-34.*

Institutes	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
Lyceums-							
Gymnasia	178	185	187	211	217	226	256
Isolated							
Lyceums	17	19	18	17	20	19	—
Isolated							
Gymnasia	146	139	137	157	154	176	178
Girl's							
Lyceums	4	—	—	—	—	—	—
Scientific							
Lyceums	55	55	55	55	58	58	61
Technical							
Institutes	114	117	115	116	137	154	*
Normal							
Institutes	87	86	92	142	147	164	174
Complementary							
Schools	412	419	—	—	—	—	—

The enrolment in all types of secondary schools increased steadily between the years 1927-28 and 1933-34, as shown in the following table:

* Beginning with 1933-34, technical institutes are included among the schools for technical and vocational education.

Enrolment of Students in Secondary Schools from 1927-28 to 1933-34

<i>Institutes</i>	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
Lyceums- Gymnasias & Isolated Lyceums	58,630	61,227	62,243	68,007	76,580	88,061	97,484
Isolated Gymnasias	12,817	11,969	12,380	13,795	17,102	21,976	24,672
Girls' Lyceums	49	—	—	—	—	—	—
Scientific Lyceums	6,200	6,120	6,058				
Technical Institutes	37,132	37,819	37,726	6,019	6,535	7,294	6,811
Normal Institutes	21,932	22,894	25,216	36,988	42,274	49,544	*
Complementary Schools	59,631	58,666	—	—	—	—	—

It is of interest to note that whereas before the Fascist régime the largest body of students was enrolled in technical schools, the tendency among students at present is to go to the lyceums and gymnasias, the gateways to the universities and professional schools. During the six-year period 1927-28 to 1933-34, enrolment in these institutes increased from 77,647 to 128,767; whereas the enrolment in the former technical institutes increased from 37,132 to 49,544.

It is encouraging to note that there is a very definite tendency on the part of girl students to attend the various types of secondary schools. The following table shows the number of pupils enrolled in government and standardized high schools in the year 1933-34, classified according to sex and type of institute:

Registration in Government and Standardized and Accredited High Schools for the year 1933-34 Classified by Sex and by Type of Institution

<i>Institutes</i>	Government Institutes		Standardized and Accredited Institutes		Total	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Lyceum-Gymnasia & Isolated Lyceums	60,616	22,641	13,046	1,181	73,662	23,822
Isolated Gymnasias	11,388	5,068	6,763	1,453	18,151	6,521
Scientific Lyceums	5,328	805	626	52	5,954	857
Normal Institutes	20,488	35,987	1,338	11,508	21,826	47,495
Total	97,820	64,501	21,773	14,194	119,593	78,695

Private Schools

One very important feature of the Gentile reform of secondary education has to do with private schools. Prior to 1923 the government exercised almost complete control of secondary instruction. It used to be practically impossible for students from private secondary schools to receive fair treatment from the examiners in government institutions, to whom they were obliged to go in order to have their studies legally recognized. As a result of the recent reform, however, students from private schools are admitted to the same examinations as students from government schools and receive impartial treatment. In this manner Gentile has raised the status of private schools. They are now granted a considerable amount of initiative; but the government still continues to protect the interests of the public by supervising closely the moral and academic qualifications of the teaching staffs and the hygienic conditions of school buildings. The government educational authorities retain very great powers of control and inspection.

The Government not only does not wish to monopolize secondary education, but actually encourages the establishment of private schools that meet certain definite requirements. The new regulations prescribe that any Italian citizen over thirty years of age may open a private school, provided he possesses the necessary academic qualifications and satisfies other legal requirements. All private school teachers must possess the same qualifications as the instructors of government institutes. A person desiring to open a private school must file a written application with the educational supervisor three months prior to the proposed opening of the school. The application must be accompanied by the program of studies, the names of the proposed teachers with degrees held, and plans of the school buildings. The law imposes severe fines for the opening of schools in violation of this regulation (one thousand to five thousand lire), and imprisonment for second offenses.

Private schools must always be open to the educational supervisor or any other person appointed by the Minister of National Education for inspection purposes. Another condition imposed is that physical education must be given in conformance with government regulations.

Schools maintained by provinces, municipalities, and chartered associations may, after complying with certain special conditions, be standardized or accredited. These institutions exist side by side with

the government institutes, and studies completed in them are recognized by the official authorities. Instructors of subsidized schools are appointed and promoted in the same manner as those in government schools. Principals of accredited schools of secondary grade are also appointed on the basis of competitive examinations.

Despite the encouragement the Government has given to private schools, the number of students attending them, though increasing, is still very small.

It is seen, to cite an example, that the vast majority of normal school students attend the government schools. Of the 79,779 normal institute pupils registered in 1933-34, 70 per cent were in government schools, 16 per cent in standardized schools, and 14 per cent in private schools. The following table gives the number of pupils enrolled in government, standardized, and private schools for certain recent years:

Schools	Government	1930-31	
		Standardized	Private
Isolated Gymnasias	9,718	4,077	7,711
Lyceum-Gymnasias			
Gymnasias-Lyceums	60,522	7,485	1,324
Scientific Lyceums	5,831	188	281
Technical Institutes	34,274	2,714	4,750
Normal Institutes	28,870	3,197	5,811
Total	139,215	17,661	19,877

Schools	Government	1933-34	
		Standardized	Private
Isolated Gymnasias	16,456	8,216	10,430
Lyceum-Gymnasias:			
Gymnasias	61,713	9,461	5,133
Lyceums	21,544	4,766	—
Scientific Lyceums	6,133	678	750
Normal Institutes	56,475	12,846	10,458
Total	162,321	35,967	26,771*

* Does not include more than 10,000 students attending private mixed schools and institutes of culture and of foreign languages.

CHAPTER VI.

TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTES

History

The Casati law of 1859 established, along with the classical gymnasium-lyceum, the technical institute, consisting of a lower or technical school, with a three-year course, and a higher or technical institute, with a four-year course. In time, however, the purposes of this institute became confused, with the result that humanistic studies received more and more emphasis in the curriculum. For this reason, not long after the passage of the Casati law, the Government was forced to establish a number of strictly technical schools, whose purpose was to impart an education in the arts, crafts, and trades. Until 1928, the latter schools, which, in the meantime, had increased to a considerable number, were under the supervision and control of the Ministry of National Economy. But the Fascist Government, in its desire to unify the entire system of education, placed all these schools under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Public Instruction, which later became the Ministry of National Education.

The transfer of all vocational and technical schools to the control of the Ministry of National Education naturally raised the question of their relation to other technical, classical, and art schools which were already under the Ministry of National Education. This situation aided in the solution of several important problems. Thus, for example, when it was found that more than one school existed for one and the same purpose, the Ministry merged them into one institute. It was also possible, under the new system, to co-ordinate more effectively the several types of schools, and to define more accurately their essential characteristics. This was done without destroying the special features which in many cases give these schools a distinct individuality, since they conform with the particular requirements and needs of the city or town wherein they are located.

Before describing in detail the principles followed and the solutions adopted by the Fascist Government in the case of technical schools and institutes, it is well to recall, in order better to understand all the factors which had to be considered, the objects of and the educational administration set up by the law of June 15, 1931, No. 889, which contained the following main provisions:

1. The numerous types of existing institutes of technical education should be reduced to a few types of schools, with well-defined characteristics and aims.
2. The instruction imparted in these schools should be of a very practical nature, so as to give students the necessary preparation for the exercise of the various trades and professions, which are closely related to the economic life of the country.
3. Technical schools and institutes should be allowed the greatest possible educational freedom and administrative autonomy. The former is necessary because each school must have its own characteristics, in accordance with the requirements, the peculiarities, and the traditions of local economics; the latter is necessary to arouse and keep alive in each school a more vigilant interest in the local chartered associations with which the work of the school is closely connected.

In every province there has been created for each type of technical or vocational school a co-operative council wherein are represented the agricultural and industrial interests of the community. The main function of these councils, from an educational point of view, is to give financial assistance to the schools.

In accordance with the new laws, technical high schools and institutes propose "to furnish young men with the necessary preparation for the practical professions which are related to the economic life of the country." More specifically, these schools, through their specializations, prepare and perfect the personnel engaged in industrial and agricultural tasks, and the technical and executive personnel of both public and private enterprises. These schools and institutes are regulated by the laws of January 7, 1929, No. 8, and of April 22, 1932, No. 490.

In addition to the vocational secondary school courses and the annual and biennial vocational courses, governed by the laws of January 7, 1929, No. 8, and of April 22, 1932, No. 490, technical education is given in the following schools and institutes:

- a) technical schools; b) vocational schools for girls; c) vo-

cational normal schools for girls; d) lower and higher technical institutes.

The programs of study for these schools, affecting six different branches of instruction, and forty-five ordinary and specialized courses, have been formulated after long and assiduous study, not only by the Government, but by distinguished men in the field of the humanities, science, and art. These programs have been examined and approved by the Higher Council of National Education.

Admission Requirements

The following are the requirements for admission to the various types of technical vocational schools and institutes:

1. Graduates of the supplementary vocational elementary schools are admitted to the first year of the technical schools and of the vocational schools for girls. Students who have been admitted to the fourth grade of any other first grade secondary school on the basis of an entrance examination on specified subjects, or who, having completed thirteen years of age, pass an entrance examination, are admitted to the commercial technical school and to the vocational school for girls.

2. Graduates of vocational schools for girls and of method schools for the education of mothers are admitted to the first grade of the vocational normal schools for girls.

3. Students who have completed ten years of age, and who pass the entrance examination referred to in Article 72 of the Royal decree of May 6, 1923, No. 1054, are admitted to the first grade of the lower course of a technical institute.

4. Students who pass the regular entrance examination, students who have been admitted to the scientific lyceum or to the higher course of the normal institute, and, in addition pass a special examination on specified subjects, and students who have been promoted to the fifth grade of the gymnasium and pass a special entrance examination, are admitted to the first grade of the higher course of the technical institute. In addition, students who have completed the first year of the agricultural or industrial section of the technical school, or the preparatory course, and pass an entrance examination on the subjects studied, are also admitted to the agricultural and industrial sections of the technical institutes.

The following classes of students are also permitted to register:

a) Graduates of vocational schools, after passing examinations in Italian, Latin, and mathematics are admitted to the fourth grade of the lower technical institute.

b) Graduates of technical schools of the corresponding type, after passing a special examination, are admitted to the second grade of the agricultural, industrial, and commercial technical institutes.

c) Students who have the maturity or qualifying diploma of a second grade secondary school are admitted to the second grade of the vocational normal school for girls, after passing a special examination.

Vocational Secondary Schools

The vocational secondary schools, established in 1928, represent the first grade in the system of vocational education. As such they provide the post-elementary education up to the age of fourteen. These schools are for the education of the children of the working and bourgeoisie classes, children who have very definite aims, and who wish to continue the tradition of their fathers, but who nevertheless feel the need of preparing themselves to understand and promote the efforts of Italy's major economic activities. A tuition fee of 25 lire per year is paid by each student. The vocational schools offer a three-year course, and admit pupils over ten years of age, who have been promoted to the fifth elementary school grade, or who are able to pass an entrance examination for that grade.

The subjects taught are elementary literature and science, drawing, penmanship, and bookkeeping. There are, of course, technical subjects preparatory to the more advanced training in the corresponding type of high schools. The practical exercises given in vocational schools vary from eight to fourteen hours per week. A diploma, awarded on the completion of the course, admits a student to the more advanced schools. It must be remembered, however, that these schools are an end in themselves, inasmuch as students who complete the courses which they offer may begin their apprenticeship in workshops.

The four types of secondary vocational schools are: 1) agricultural, 2) commercial, 3) industrial, and 4) nautical. The following tabulation gives the number of government schools of each

type and the number of teachers, pupils, and graduates, as of the year 1933-34:

Types of Government Vocational Schools and Number of Teachers, Pupils, and Graduates, 1933-34

Type	Schools	Teachers and Adm. Staff	Technical Personnel	Pupils	Graduates
Agricultural	78	626	181	6,702	1,148
Commercial	249	3,640	—	75,881	11,265
Industrial	204	2,803	770	43,937	7,044
Nautical	3	37	8	444	73
Total	534	7,106	959	126,964	19,570

In addition to the government secondary vocational schools, there are the accredited institutions for each of the four types. The following table shows the number of these accredited institutions, the number of teachers and administrators, the technical personnel, the pupils, and graduates in 1933-34:

Type	Schools	Teachers and Adm. Staff	Technical Personnel	Pupils	Graduates
Agricultural	17	140	22	1,127	219
Commercial	95	999	—	12,739	2,203
Industrial	70	812	320	11,806	1,921
Nautical	1	10	3	61	11
Total	183	1961	345	25,733	4,354

Annual and Biennial Vocational Courses

Besides the three-year vocational schools, there are the annual and biennial vocational courses offered by the Government and chartered associations. These courses are organized wherever it is not feasible to establish a vocational school providing a full three-year course.

The following tabulation shows the number of vocational courses, of each type given in 1933-34, and the number of teachers, pupils, and graduates of these courses:

Types of Vocational Courses, Teachers, Pupils, and Graduates in 1933-34

Type	<i>Annual</i>				<i>Biennial</i>			
	Courses	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Courses	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates
Agricultural	365	1,375	11,533	9,169	167	797	8,855	6,682
Commercial	21	75	616	507	31	193	2,240	1,568
Industrial	69	248	2,864	2,132	104	694	9,009	6,341
Nautical	3	15	126	89	5	32	346	249
Total	458	1,713	15,139	11,897	307	1,716	20,450	14,840

Vocational Schools for Girls

There are two types of vocational schools for girls: the secondary vocational school and the normal vocational school. The secondary vocational school offers a three-year course for the "preparation of young girls for the practice of professions especially suited to girls, and for the good care of the home". The normal vocational school, with a two-year course, aims to give the theoretical and practical preparation necessary for the teaching of domestic economy and sewing. It awards teachers' diplomas in these subjects.

Both of these schools stress vocational subjects and practical work; but cultural and scientific subjects are not ignored. On the contrary, they have an important place in the curriculum, especially in the normal vocational school. The programs of study of the two types are as follows:

Program of the Secondary Vocational School for Girls

Subjects	Hours per Week		
	I	II	III
General Culture:			
Italian	3	3	3
History	2	2	—
Fascist culture	—	—	1
Geography	2	—	—
Mathematics	3	3	—
Elements of bookkeeping	—	—	2
Natural sciences	3	2	—
Merchandising	—	—	2
Drawing	4	4	4
Elements of history of art	—	2	2
Domestic economy & exercises	3	4	4
Hygiene	—	—	2
Sewing, etc.	2	2	2
Foreign language	2	2	2
Religion	1	1	1
	—	—	—
Total	25	25	25
Laboratory exercises	12	12	12
Physical education	2	2	2

*Programs of Study of the Domestic Economy and Sewing Divisions
of the Normal Vocational School*

Subjects	Specialization			
	Domestic	Economy	Sewing	
	I	II	I	II
Italian	4	3	4	3
History	3	3	3	3
Geography	3	—	3	—
Pedagogy	3	5	3	5
History of art	—	2	—	2
Foreign language	2	2	2	2
Natural sciences	2	2	2	—
Merchandising	2	2	—	2
Drawing	2	2	4	4
Domestic economy	5	5	2	2
Hygiene	2	2	—	2
Sewing, etc.	2	2	3	3
Elements of agriculture	2	2	2	2
Religion	1	1	1	1
	—	—	—	—
Total	33	33	29	29
Laboratory exercises	9	9	13	13
Physical education	2	2	2	2

The Technical School

The principle has been established that the technical school, offering a two or three-year course, should not be considered as a bridge between the vocational secondary school and the higher course of the technical institute, despite the fact that the law permits graduates of technical schools to enter the second grade of the technical institute of the corresponding type. The technical school should rather be considered as a unit in itself, as having an end in itself, in accordance with the fundamental object for which it was established, namely, "to supplement the specific practical preparation of graduates of vocational secondary schools." The technical school thus aims to contribute toward the development of national economy by the preparation of efficient and capable workers.

The technical school has three sections: agricultural, industrial and mechanical, and commercial. The agricultural section provides for the following specializations: vine culture and enology, horti-

culture, animal husbandry and dairy products, olive culture and oil industry.

The industrial section provides for the following specializations: carpentry and cabinet making, mechanics, building, textile manufacture, mining. The mechanical section usually offers a one-year course for the following specializations: chemistry, agrarian mechanics, machine mechanics, automobile mechanics, mechanics for food industries (mills, bakeries), radio mechanics, heat mechanics.

The commercial type offers no specializations.

The technical school awards the following diplomas:

- 1) The industrial and mechanical section, the diploma of technician or artisan in the relative specialization.
- 2) The agricultural section, the diploma of rural agent.
- 3) The commercial section, the diploma of commercial book-keeper.

The Technical Institute

The object of the technical institute, which offers an eight-year course, divided into two four-year divisions, a lower and a higher, is "to prepare for the exercise of certain professions, especially technical or administrative posts in agriculture, industry, and commerce". The lower course is the same for all students; the higher is divided into five sections: agricultural, industrial, commercial, nautical, and surveying. Thus there are technical agricultural institutes, technical industrial institutes, technical commercial institutes of two types: 1) business, and 2) surveying, and technical nautical institutes, according to the section or sections existing in the higher course of the institute.

The law regulating technical institutes permits the agricultural, industrial, and nautical sections of the higher division to offer the following specialized courses:

The agricultural section: specialization in vine culture and enology; olive culture and oil industry, fruit culture, horticulture and gardening; animal husbandry and dairy products; colonial agriculture; rural economy; tobacco culture and tobacco industry.

The industrial section: specialization in mechanics; electricity;

mining engineering; textiles and dyeing; building trades; chemistry; and radio.

The nautical section: specialization in the training of captains, machinists, and ship builders.

The commercial section does not provide for specializations, but if special conditions in the economic life of the community or the nation warrant it, this section may also offer specializations with compulsory and elective courses of study.

The higher technical institute may award the following diplomas depending on the specialization:

The agricultural section, the diploma of expert agriculturalist or of specialized expert agriculturalist.

The industrial or mechanical section, the diploma of chief industrial technical expert, or of master craftsman in the corresponding specialization.

The commercial section, the diploma of accountant or of commercial expert.

The surveying section, the diploma of land surveyor.

The nautical section, the diploma of "aspirer" to the command of merchant vessels, to the office of chief engineer, or to the profession of naval construction, depending on the relative specialization.

Lower Division

The educational reform provided for several important changes in the program of the lower division of the technical institute. The weekly hours of study were increased from 24 to 26 for the first year, from 25 to 26 for the second year, and from 25 to 27 for the third and fourth years, a total of 106 hours instead of 99. These hours are exclusive of the time devoted to religious and physical education.

Changes in the curriculum included the transfer of four hours of work a week in the natural sciences (botany and zoology) from the higher section to the last two years of the lower section, in order to give more time for professional subjects in the upper section. The program in mathematics was extended to meet the increased scientific and technical demands of the five sections of the higher division. The number of hours of instruction in history and geography were increased and it was provided that these subjects should be taught in

separate periods. The program in history was broadened so as to present a general view of the subject, especially of Italian history from ancient times to the present day. Formerly, the history course was limited to pre-Hellenic, Greek, and Roman civilizations. The new program serves as a preparation for study of social and economic history in the higher section of the institute.

The number of class hours devoted to the Italian and Latin languages was slightly reduced, yet more time is spent on these two subjects in the lower course of the technical institute than in the lower course of the normal institute.

The hours devoted to drawing, foreign languages, stenography, and mathematics are now more rationally distributed over the four years than they were formerly. In mathematics, for example, the programs provide three hours per week in each of the four years, while in the past they called for 2, 2, 4, and 4 hours respectively in the four years.

Students who pass the entrance examination to the higher course of the technical institute, and who then transfer to the scientific lyceum, have an opportunity to review to a large extent the subject matter studied in the third and fourth grades of the lower course of the technical institute, and their scientific preparation is thus superior to that of students from the normal institute or the gymnasium.

The distribution of the subjects in the lower course of the technical institute, in accordance with the new programs, is as follows:

Subjects	Hours per Week			
	I	II	III	IV
Italian language	7	6	5	4
Latin language	7	7	5	5
History	3	2	2	2
Fascist culture	—	—	—	1
Geography	2	2	2	2
Mathematics	3	3	3	3
Natural sciences	—	—	2	2
Drawing	4	2	2	2
Foreign language	—	4	4	4
Stenography	—	—	2	2
Total	26	26	27	27
Physical education	2	2	2	2
Religion	1	1	1	1

*The Preparatory Course of the Technical
Institute*

The higher divisions of the agricultural, industrial and commercial technical institutes offer one-year preparatory courses for graduates of vocational schools of the corresponding type.

In these preparatory courses the work in the cultural subjects (Italian, history, and geography) and in the natural sciences is the same as in the lower technical institutes. As for the other subjects, the special needs of each division have been taken into consideration, both with regard to the total number of hours of work and the distribution of the hours and work in each subject.

An important problem that presented itself in the preparation of the programs was whether Latin should be included in the preparatory courses. After careful consideration, the authorities decided that it should not, since the preparatory course is exclusively for graduates of vocational schools of the corresponding type where Latin is not among the subjects of study. The study of Latin for only one year could hardly be expected to yield satisfactory results.

The following is the program of studies in the one-year pre-

paratory courses of the technical, industrial, commercial, and agricultural institutes. It is seen that the courses of the agricultural and industrial institutes emphasize practice in the field and laboratories.

Hours per week in the Preparatory Course

Subject	Industrial	Commercial	Agricultural
Italian	8	8	8
History	2	2	2
Geography	3	3	3
Foreign language	2	4	2
Mathematics	5	6	3
Natural sciences	3	3	3
Drawing	6	—	4
Religion	1	1	1
Stenography	—	2	—
	—	—	—
Total	30	29	26
Laboratory or field exercises	9	—	12
Physical education	2	2	2

The requirements for admission to these preparatory courses are the same as those for admission to the technical, commercial, industrial and agricultural schools. In addition, students are admitted if they have been promoted from the third to the fourth year of the gymnasium, or the lower technical and normal institutes.

Agricultural High School Education

History

The teaching of agriculture in Italy formed a part of the higher or university system of education as early as the middle of the eighteenth century, when the Republic of Venice established a professorship in agriculture at the University of Padua.

In 1771, the Academy of Gergofili of Florence, stressed the importance of the teaching of agriculture, and four years later, in order to stimulate interest in the subject, it held a contest in which

prizes were awarded for the best essays on the teaching of agriculture. Many years passed, however, before definite steps could be taken to promote the study of the subject. In 1834, Cosimo Ridolfi established a theoretical and practical school on his own farm at Meleto, near Castelfiorentino. His example was soon followed in other parts of Italy, and through the initiative of agricultural academies and other societies, several similar schools were organized.

Soon after the establishment of the new Kingdom of Italy, in 1871, the necessity of systematizing the teaching of this subject in accordance with the needs of the country was felt by the ministers of agriculture, but nothing definite was undertaken until 1876, when the Government founded the first agricultural high school at Conegliano. This school specialized in vine culture and enology.

In 1877 a school for the study of animal husbandry and dairy products was established at Reggio Emilia. A school in vine culture and enology was founded in 1879 at Avellino, and soon three other schools were established at Catania, Alba, and Cagliari, also specializing in vine culture and enology.

With the increase in the number of agricultural schools it became necessary to provide for their regulation. To this end the law of June 6, 1885, No. 3141, was passed, outlining the general organization of special and practical schools of agriculture.

The schools administered in accordance with the law of 1885 were on the whole of distinct service to the country, though they did not always meet the expectations of agriculturists, or the hopes of the legislators. Nevertheless, they continued to function according to the original plan of organization until 1923, when the time seemed ripe for a radical reform in administration and program. Without in any way interfering with the constructive work that was being accomplished, the law of December 30, 1923, No. 3214, introduced many changes in these schools. Among the more important of these changes were the following:

1. Certain of the schools were converted into royal agricultural high schools for the preparation of personnel for administrative posts in the medium-sized rural industrial or agricultural establishments, and for the training of subordinate personnel for large establishments and technicians and experts for agricultural educational institutes. Eleven of the schools were to continue to function as practical agricultural schools.

2. All the schools were to be improved so as to conform with the higher cultural level of the country, the increased importance of the duties of administrators of rural industries, and the progress of agricultural science.

3. The curriculum of each school was to be determined along rational lines, and the plan of organization was to be adjusted to the economic and agricultural conditions peculiar to the district in which the school was situated.

4. Every school was to receive lands for experimental purposes.

5. Agricultural instruction was to be directed toward various specializations.

6. Each school was to serve an agricultural district.

Technical Agricultural High Schools

In 1933-34 there were eleven royal and seventeen accredited agricultural schools for the preparation of agricultural experts. There were also twenty-tree private schools depending on the provincial consortiums, and twenty-six private schools. Some of these are general schools and some are specialized. For example, the schools at Alba, Avellino, Catania, Conegliano, and Marsala have special programs in vine culture and enology; the school at Padua has a special course in drainage; the school at Reggio Emilia specializes in animal husbandry and dairy products; the one at Rome, in agricultural mechanics; the ones at Lecce and Pescia in olive culture and oil industry; the one at Florence in fruit culture, horticulture, and gardening; the one at Brescia in rural economics. The school at Macerata has courses in bee and silkworm culture.

In both the general and the specialized schools the programs in the cultural subjects (Italian, history, geography, and Fascist culture) and in mathematics, elementary physics and the natural sciences are the same. Both types of schools also have courses in vegetable pathology, elementary chemistry, agriculture and rural economics, rural accountancy, agrarian industries, land surveying, drawing, animal husbandry, and rural legislation.

The following tabulation shows the programs of a general agricultural high school and four specialized agricultural high schools:

Programs of General Agricultural High School and of Four Specialized Schools:

General Type	Specialization in Vine Culture		Specialization in Olive Culture		Specialization in Horticulture		Specialization in Animal Husbandry	
	I	II	I	II	I	II	I	II
Subjects	I	II	I	II	I	II	I	II
Italian, history, Fascist culture	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Geography	2	—	—	—	2	—	2	—
Mathematics	4	—	—	—	4	—	4	—
Physics	3	—	—	—	3	—	3	—
Natural sciences	3	—	—	—	3	—	3	—
Vegetable pathology	—	2	—	3	—	2	—	2
Chemistry	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	2
Rural economics	4	4	2	3	2	3	2	3
Rural bookkeeping	—	4	—	3	—	3	—	3
Agrarian industries	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Surveying & drawing	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Animal husbandry	—	3	—	2	—	—	—	—
Rural legislation	—	1	—	1	—	1	—	—
Religion	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Vine culture	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—
Enology	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—
Oil culture	—	—	—	—	2	3	—	—
Fruit culture	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Horticulture	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Gardening	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Garden industries	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dairy products	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Practice	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
Physical education	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

In addition to the special subjects already referred to, some schools also offer courses in foreign languages. Nearly all institutes include the teaching of religion as a required subject. Physical education is entrusted to the *Balilla* organization.

The curriculum of agricultural high schools is crowded, but the commission which was appointed to reorganize all technical and vocational schools did not consider it wise to reduce the number of hours, especially because the eighteen hours a week of laboratory work in the open air, provided for by the programs, constitute a healthy form of physical exercise. The commission also took into consideration the fact that the practical laboratory exercises are curtailed at times because of seasonal periods of inactivity in farm work.

On the completion of the four-year course of the agricultural high school the student receives a special diploma qualifying him as a technician in the wine or oil industry, as a horticulturalist, or as an expert in animal husbandry, dairying, etc .

Students are admitted to agricultural high schools from the lower course of the technical or normal institute, the fourth grade of the gymnasium, the practical agricultural school, the complementary school, or what is now the secondary vocational agricultural school. Students from the last two mentioned types of schools are required to pass an entrance examination to determine their aptitude for the work. Students may be admitted between the ages of 14 and 17 years. War orphans and children of agriculturalists and of agricultural industrialists are given preference.

The following fees are paid by students:

	Lire
Matriculation	60
Annual tuition	250
Qualifying certificate	200
Specialization diploma	200
Integrating examination in each subject	20
Laboratory	75

Each school has a home where students are required to live.

Technical Agricultural Institutes

The higher division of the technical agricultural institute provides for a general course of study lasting four years; and a fifth year devoted to the following specializations: a) vine culture and enology; b) olive culture and industry; c) fruit culture, horticulture and gardening; d) animal husbandry and dairy products; e) colonial agriculture; f) rural economics; g) tobacco culture and tobacco industry.

This system of specializations is said to offer better guarantees for placing graduates in agricultural establishments. However, it must be remembered that while specializations may be extremely important to the point of requiring an executive to have specialized knowledge of the various branches, still it is also true that only few establishments are definitely specialized in any one branch of agriculture.

The program of study in colonial agriculture has been prepared in agreement with the Ministry of Colonies.

As to the program of study in the ordinary course of the technical institute of agriculture (higher course, common type), the Commission was unanimous in maintaining that it would be unwise to increase the total time devoted to the subjects studied in the former agricultural secondary schools.

The problem as to the best way of preparing specialists in agriculture was also carefully studied in connection with the preparation of a bill on technical secondary education. The recommendations made were favorably received by Parliament, and the programs are in accordance with these recommendations. In preparing the programs of study the Commission was guided by the fact that it is impossible to specialize in agriculture in only one grade of school, since it affects all those connected with agriculture, from the laborers to the administrators.

The law of December 30, 1923, No. 3214, which reformed the secondary schools of agriculture, took into consideration the needs of only one category of workers—the administrators. Provision was made for this category on the principle that specialization should supplement the general preparation in agriculture.

Specialization courses of one year's duration were accordingly established in connection with some well-equipped agricultural schools,

and more especially in those schools which offered specialized subjects in their lower or higher secondary course. These specialization courses followed a three-year general course in a high secondary school. This arrangement made it possible for young men who had completed the course in general agriculture in a secondary agricultural school of the common type to avail themselves of the specialization courses.

The following are the programs of study in the higher division of technical agricultural institutes and in the various specializations:

Subjects	Higher Division Hours per Week			
	I	II	III	IV
Italian literature	3	3	3	3
History	3	3	—	—
Mathematics	4	4	—	—
Physics	3	3	—	—
Agriculture	—	4	4	4
Economics & rural taxation	—	—	3	3
Agrarian bookkeeping	—	—	2	2
Animal husbandry	—	—	2	3
Natural sciences	4	3	—	—
Vegetable pathology	—	—	—	3
Geography	—	3	—	—
General inorganic & organic chemistry	3	2	—	—
Agrarian chemistry	—	—	3	—
Agrarian industries	—	—	—	3
Agrarian mechanics	—	—	2	—
Elements of rural constructions & related drawing	—	—	—	5
Elements of topography & rela- ted drawing	—	—	5	—
Elements of agrarian law	—	—	2	—
Religion	1	1	1	1
Total	21	26	27	27
Exercises:				
Natural sciences	1	2	—	—
Vegetable pathology	—	—	2	—
Chemistry (analytical, agrarian, technological)	—	2	3	3
Topography	—	—	3	—
Agrarian mechanics	—	—	—	2
Agrarian establishments	12	10	6	8
Physical Education	2	2	2	2

Final Specialization Course in Vine Culture and Enology

Subjects	Hours per Week per Trimester		
	I	II	III
Vine culture & enological chemistry	2	2	2
Vine culture	6	4	—
Enology	—	5	5
Vine culture & enological economics	—	—	4
Vine culture & enological mechanics	4	2	—
Vine culture & enological pathology	1	3	2
Fermentation chemistry	3	—	—
Enological constructions	2	2	5
Enotechnical legislation	—	—	2
Vine culture & enological commerce	2	2	—
Total	20	20	20

Exercises :

Vine culture, enology & fermentation pathology

3 3 3

Technological chemistry

3 3 3

Vine culture & enology

9 9 9

Final Specialization Course in Animal Husbandry & Dairy Products

Subjects	Hours per Week per Trimester		
	I	II	III
Anatomy, physiology & hygiene of domestic animals	4	4	4
Zoognosis	6	—	—
Animal husbandry	—	6	6
Bacteriology	3	—	—
Dairy products	3	6	6
Animal husbandry & dairy products: mechanics & constructions	4	4	4
Animal husbandry & dairy products: legislation	2	2	2
Animal husbandry & dairy products: bookkeeping	2	2	2
Total	24	24	24

Exercises :

Animal husbandry

9 9 9

Bacteriology

3 — —

Chemistry of dairy products

4 4 4

Dairy products

5 8 8

Final Specialization Course in Fruit Culture, Horticulture and Gardening.

Subjects	Hours per Week
Fruit culture	4
Horticulture	4
Gardening	4
Architecture, construction & sanitation of gardens & parks	3
Horticultural economics	2
Horticultural constructions	2
Horticultural pathology & entomology	2
Horticultural technology	2
Breeding of domestic animals	1
<hr/>	
Total	24
Exercises:	
Fruit culture, horticulture & gardening	14
Horticultural technology	2
Breeding of domestic animals	2

Final Specialization Course in Rural Economics

Subjects	Hours per Week
Rural economics	4
Milk & milk industry	4
Cultivation of irrigated lands	4
Animal husbandry & hygiene of livestock	3
Etiology & prophylaxis of diseases of livestock	3
Constructions & drainage	4
<hr/>	
Total	22
Exercises:	
Agriculture & rural economics	8
Milk & dairy industry	6
Animal husbandry	3

*Final Specialization Course in Tobacco Culture
and Tobacco Industry*

Subjects	Hours per Week
Botany & pathology of tobacco	2
Cultivation & technology of tobacco	8
Production, economics & commerce of tobacco	2
Legislation, & bookkeeping of tobacco culture	3
<hr/>	
Total	15
Exercises:	
Botany & pathology of tobacco	3
Cultivation & technology of tobacco	16

Final Specialization Course in Colonial Agriculture

Subject	Hours per Week
Colonial agriculture	6
Description & pathology of colonial plants	2
Technology of colonial products	2
Rural colonial economics	5
Agrarian colonial zoology	2
Animal husbandry & hygiene of livestock in colonies	2
Colonial hygiene & first aid	2
English language	4
Total	25
Exercises:	
Colonial agriculture, description, etc.	10
Field practice—continued sojourn in field for at least two months.	

The following table shows the number of royal and accredited agricultural schools, and private agricultural schools in the school year 1933-34:

School and Institute	No.	Teachers & Admin- istrators	Technical Person- nel	Pupils	Grad- uates
Royal Agricultural Tech. Institutes	23	237	75	1,667	93
Standardized Agricultural Tech. Institutes	2	20	5	127	—
Royal Agr. Tech. Schools	11	77	18	344	103
Accredited Agr. Tech. Schools	17	149	33	679	224
Private Agr. Tech. Schools Depending on Provincial Consortiums	23	123	—	1,399	—
Private Agr. Tech. Schools	26	139	45	1,066	566
Total	102	745	176	5,282	986

Commercial High School Education
History

The need for providing adequate preparation for young men who wish to devote themselves to commercial pursuits had long been

recognized in Italy. Early in the present century practical schools of commerce were established, for the most part through the initiative of local corporations. These schools were supported by the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce, on which they then depended. But the Ministry entrusted the local corporations with the task of regulating the work of the schools in accordance with local and regional requirements.

In 1902 the first royal commercial high school of Italy was established in Rome. This was authorized by a Royal decree of May 22 of that year, enacted in compliance with the request of the Chamber of Commerce of Rome. The organization and course of study of the schools were patterned on those of the best commercial schools in other countries. The school was to serve as a model for schools in other Italian cities.

In 1906, similar schools were founded in Florence, Bologna and Brescia; and in 1907, in Feltre, Milan, Palermo, Salerno and Naples. Lower grade commercial schools offering a more limited and a shorter program of studies were also established, and were subsidized by the State and by local authorities, especially by chambers of commerce. A diploma from the gymnasium, or the technical school, or the lower commercial school was required for admission to the commercial high school. The commercial schools received the active support of all those who appreciated the need for providing a serious preparation for business commensurate with the new exigencies of life.

The progressive economic development of Italy during the next few years necessitated a reorganization of the commercial schools. This was authorized by the law of July 14, 1912, No. 854, and by the general regulation of June 22, 1913, N^o. 1014. These regulations divided commercial high schools as follows:

1. Royal professional commercial schools of the second grade (high schools), with a three-year course, offering theoretical and practical preparation for commercial agents and employees.
2. Royal professional commercial institutes of the third grade, with a four-year course, offering theoretical and practical preparation for students wishing to qualify for executive positions in commercial houses, or as commercial, industrial, actuarial accountants.

Higher commercial education was regulated by the special law of March 20, 1913, No. 268.

It was provided that graduates of commercial schools should re-

ceive a diploma in commercial studies and graduates of commercial institutes a diploma either as commercial experts, or as commercial, industrial, or actuarial accountants, in accordance with the special aims of the institute in which they had studied. The diploma of the commercial institute would admit students to higher royal institutes of economic and commercial science.

To be admitted to the first year of a commercial high school, pupils would be required to have a diploma from a complementary school or a vocational school; or, if they had passed the entrance examination to a lower grade high school within the past three years, they could be admitted to the commercial high school after a special entrance examination.

Students completing the three-year course of the commercial high school were to be eligible for admission to the commercial institute.

In 1916, the commercial high school course was increased from three to four years, by the addition of a specialization course for the benefit of students who did not intend to pursue their studies further in commercial institutes. The requirement for admission to commercial institutes continued to be the same, namely, the first three years of the commercial school.

The Royal decree of November 13, 1919, No. 2431, drew a sharp distinction between commercial and industrial high schools which, up to that time, had been administered under the same laws. However, this law did not affect the educational organization of these schools. The Royal decree of May 15, 1924, No. 749, which was converted into the law of April 7, 1925, No. 473, on the organization of commercial high school education, and the regulation approved by the Royal decree of May 28, 1925, No. 1190, gave organic unity to this branch of vocational education.

Organization

According to the present organization, royal commercial high schools, founded and supported by contributions from the State and from local corporations, are autonomous public corporations, governed by administrative councils. An administrative council is composed of the director of the school and delegates appointed by the Ministry of National Education and the corporations which contribute toward

the support of the school. The following have direct representation in the administrative council, regardless of the extent of their contributions: the municipality, the province, and the Provincial Council of Economy of the city wherein the school is located. Other corporations and private contributors may also be represented, but only if their annual contribution is not less than one-twentieth of the total contribution of the State and the above-mentioned public corporations. The administrative council is formed by ministerial decree. Its members hold office for three years. The president is chosen by the Minister of National Education from among its members.

The Council prepares the tentative and final budgets of the school, which it is required to transmit to the Ministry for approval; it provides for the service fund; it approves expenses within the limits of the approved budget; it proposes to the Ministry useful measures for the proper function and increased efficiency of the school; it decides on exemptions from payment of school fees on the recommendation of the staff; it awards scholarships and prizes to pupils; it appoints the service personnel; and it performs all other duties prescribed in the regulations. The decisions of the administrative council cannot be carried out unless they have the written approval of the Ministry.

Technical Commercial High School

In the following pages are presented the programs of studies in the commercial high school and the commercial institute. The programs aim at providing the best possible professional and practical training for the future directors of business and banking houses, and for auxiliary commercial agents of different categories. The various courses are well coordinated so that their interdependence and interrelation are readily apparent.

Program of Studies

Subjects	Hours per Week	
	I	II
General culture:		
Italian, history, Fascist culture	4	4
Geography	2	2
Mathematics, bookkeeping, business arithmetic and accounting:	5	6
Commercial institutions and commercial practice	4	6
Natural sciences and physics	3	—
Merchandising	—	4
First foreign language	2	2
Second foreign language	4	4
Penmanship	2	—
Typewriting	2	—
Stenography	2	2
Religion	1	1
	—	—
Total	31	31
Physical Education	2	2

Each year every commercial school and institute provides in its budget for visits by the students to business houses and commercial organizations of the same city or nearby centres and for instruction trips to the principal industrial and commercial cities of Italy, and, at times, even of foreign countries. In this manner each subject of study is closely related to practical life. This not only helps to keep the student's interests alive, but makes evident the usefulness and the immediate application of the subjects studied.

Fees

The fees for the commercial high school and the commercial institutes are tabulated below:

	Lire
Entrance examination	60
Matriculation	60
Attendance (for each class)	150
Achievement examination	50
Diploma examination	150
Diploma	50

Commercial schools offering a complete course of study similar to that of the royal schools, and which give guarantee of high standards of scholarship, become examination headquarters, and are called standardized schools. Schools of this kind are situated at Bolzano, Catania, Fiume, Genoa, Montecatini-Terme, Rome (day and evening schools), Rovereto, Savona, Verona, Viareggio, Alassio, Finale Ligure, Lucca, Merano and Milan.

The following examinations are given: for entrance to the first year of the school; for entrance to the preparatory course and to the first regular course of the institute; an achievement examination for external students or a promotion examination for internal students; a diploma examination, which is taken at the end of the course of the commercial school; a qualifying examination, which is taken at the end of the course of commercial institutes.

Students who, in the final examination, receive a grade of not less than eight-tenths in conduct are promoted without examination in subjects in which they have an average of not less than seven-tenths. No exemptions may be granted in the case of the diploma or qualifying examination.

In addition to students of both royal schools and recognized private schools, pupils from other private or public schools may take the diploma examination of the commercial schools, provided they passed the entrance examination to the commercial school at least two years previously. Students from royal or recognized private institutes, as well as students who during the past four years have passed the entrance examination to a commercial institute are admitted to the qualifying examination.

Commercial schools or institutes which have been designated examination seats may hold examinations in the presence of a government commissioner, but the qualifying examination may be held only at a royal commercial institute.

Commercial schools receive their pupils from wide areas; often students come from various provinces of the same region, and, at times, even from other regions.

Schools of the same grade have a uniform general organization. Yet if special local conditions require it, each school is permitted to modify its program by the addition of integrating or special courses. This flexibility in the arrangement of the courses of study permits schools to prepare well-qualified personnel which, upon graduation, can be profitably employed in local industrial and commercial houses.

In addition to the government schools and to full-time and part-time evening and holiday schools which are governed by special regulations, there are private commercial high schools whose educational organization is in harmony with that of the royal schools, and, which are therefore officially recognized by the authorities. These private schools enjoy educational autonomy, but are under the supervision of the Ministry of National Education.

Technical Commercial Institutes

The object of the technical commercial institute is to furnish the theoretical and practical preparation necessary to fill executive positions in commercial houses, and to exercise the profession of commercial, industrial, or actuarial accountant. Those who pass the qualifying examination at the end of the course receive the diploma of commercial, industrial, or actuarial expert and accountant.

In the preparation of the programs of technical commercial institutes the following principles have been observed:

1. In both the technical school and institute, commercial education has become strictly technical in character from the very first year of the course. This principle has been approved by both branches of Parliament, and is in harmony with the statement issued by the Head of the Government at the session of the National Council of Corporations held in November 1931, in which he emphasized the necessity of "harmonizing" commercial education with the economic life of the country.

2. The natural development of the various subjects studied in the lower and higher divisions of the institute. In so doing the authorities did not take into consideration the fact that a pupil may

enter the institute from either a vocational school or from a technical commercial school by pursuing a preparatory course.

The schedules and programs of technical commercial institutes emphasize the technical subjects of the higher division. After the four-year course in general culture in the lower technical institute, the study of technical and professional subjects is gradually, but immediately begun. The special aptitude examination for admission to the third year of the higher course for candidates from private schools, provided for by the recent laws, thus furnishes a more complete and efficient control of the preparation and aptitude of incoming students.

In consideration of cultural and national interests the study of Italian has been extended to all the four years of the higher course.

In the first year of the higher division, mineralogy, physical geography, and geology are studied as introductory courses to the study of geography and merchandising.

The teaching of zoology and botany in the third and fourth years of the lower division does not confine itself to a description of the more important species of the two organic kingdoms, but includes also a study of animal and vegetable biology. This is necessary both as an important element in the general culture of the students, and as a preparation to the study of biological and economic geography and merchandising which are taken up in the higher course.

Despite the relation existing between geography and natural sciences—a relation which has resulted in the present grouping of the subjects into one professorship—Italian geographers have often expressed the wish that it may soon be possible to divide the subject matter of the program at least in institutes having several complete courses or sections, and to entrust the teaching of these two subjects to different instructors. If this could be done it would be possible to prepare pupils and specialized teachers in both subjects. Technical commercial institutes would constitute a source from which to fill professorships in universities and higher institutes, especially in geography.

This diploma not only entitles the candidate to practice the profession, and to be registered in the corresponding professional rolls, but also gives him preference when applying for positions in banks, insurance, transportation, and commercial firms. The diploma also admits graduates to group B competitive examinations held by

public administrations. In addition, the diploma admits students to royal higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences.

The following is the program of study in the technical commercial institutes:

Program of Studies
Regular Course for Administrative & Business Positions

Subjects	Hours per Week							
	I		II		III		IV	
	Adm- inis.	Busi- ness	Adm- inis.	Busi- ness	Adm- inis.	Busi- ness	Adm- inis.	Busi- ness
Italian Literature	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
History	3	3	3	3	—	—	—	—
Mathematics	3	3	3	3	2	2	—	—
Physics	3	3	—	—	—	—	—	—
Natural sciences	3	3	—	—	—	—	—	—
General & economic								
Geography	—	—	2	2	2	2	3	3
Chemistry	2	—	—	3	—	—	—	—
Merchandising	—	—	3	—	—	4	—	4
First foreign language	2	3	3	3	—	—	—	—
Second foreign language	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Bookkeeping & accountancy	3	4	3	4	5	4	6	4
Commercial technique, transportation & customs	—	—	—	—	3	2	2	4
Legal institutions	—	—	3	3	4	3	5	3
Political economy, elements of finance, & statistics	—	—	—	—	4	4	4	4
Penmanship	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Religion	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total	28	29	28	29	28	29	28	30
Stenography (elective)	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Typewriting (elective)	—	—	2	2	—	—	—	—
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

A course on "Elements of Corporative Law", which is taught in connection with the course on legal and economic institutions, and a course on religion have been added to the foregoing program.

The following table shows the amount of the various fees, which students are required to pay in technical commercial institutes:

Fees for Commercial Institutes

a)	Preparatory course:	
	Entrance examination	100
	Registration	60
	Attendance	250
b)	Regular course:	
	Entrance examination	150
	Registration	60
	Attendance (for each class)	300
	Achievement examination	100
	Qualifying examination	250
	Qualifying diploma	100

Statistics on Technical Commercial Schools and Institutes

The following table shows the number of the various types of technical commercial schools and institutes, the number of teaching and administrative personnel, the technical staff, the pupils, and the graduates in 1933-34:

Technical Commercial Schools and Institutes in 1933-34:

Institute	No.	Teachers & Administrators	Technical Personnel	Pupils	Graduates
Royal Comm. Tech. Inst.—business	24	571	11	9,605	1,445
Royal Comm. Tech. Inst.—surveying and adm.	103	3,166	346	44,428	9,934
Accredited Comm. Inst.—business	10	148	5	1,531	
Accredited Comm. Tech. Inst.—surveying and administration	17	412	19	5,646	
Royal Isolated Tech. Inst.—lower course	30	302	1	2,985	
Accredited Isolated Tech. Inst.—lower course	6	50	—	737	
Royal Isolated Comm. Tech. Schools	15	155	—	660	207
Tech. Comm. Schools Annexed to Royal Inst.	8	80	2	286	93
Accredited Comm. Tech. Schools	21	252	3	1,207	476
Royal Comm. Tech. Evening Schools	2	19	—	273	44
Evening Schools & Courses Annexed to Royal Inst. & Courses	6	43	—	552	122
Accredited Evening Tech. Comm. Schools	2	31	—	167	8
Private Comm. Schools Depending on Provincial Consortiums	40	453	—	6,630	—
Total	284	5,682	387	74,707	12,329

Technical Institute for Land Surveyors

The basic professional subjects taught in the technical institute for land surveyors are: topography, constructions and plans, architectural and ornamental drawing or design, tax apportionment, and bookkeeping. The number of hours assigned to the fundamental subjects in the new program is greater than in the program of the former land surveying section—17 hours in topography instead of 16 (with a definite and distinct schedule for practical exercises and topographical drawing which was not provided for in the former land surveying section); 16 hours of construction instead of 15; 6 hours of architectural and ornamental design instead of 4; 4 hours of bookkeeping instead of rural accounting. The four hours devoted to tax-appraising remain the same. Eight hours have been assigned to agronomy, rural economics and technology, thus enabling the instructor to give adequate attention to these subjects. Instruction in the elements of civil law takes the place of that in rural legislation, with twice the number of hours, and is continued through the last year. Chemistry has been reduced by two hours because agricultural chemistry has been removed from the curriculum. In its place the authorities have introduced chemistry in its application to construction materials, water, combustibles, and explosives used in labor. Important changes have been made also in the programs and schedules of other preparatory and general cultural subjects.

On the whole, the program of a new technical institute for surveyors is adequate to meet the real needs of the profession. This program is given below:—

Subjects	Hours per Week			
	I	II	III	IV
Italian literature	3	3	3	3
History	3	3	—	—
Mathematics	4	3	—	—
Physics	3	2	—	—
Chemistry	3	2	2	—
Natural sciences & geography	3	3	—	—
Elements of agriculture, economics and rural technology	—	—	4	4
Property evaluation	—	—	—	4
Bookkeeping of constructions	—	—	2	2
Constructions & drawing of constructions	—	4	7	5
Topography & topographical drawing:				
Topography	—	3	4	4
Topographical exercises & drawing	—	—	3	3
Architectural & ornamental drawing	4	2	—	—
Elements of civil law	—	—	2	2
Religion	1	1	1	1
Total	—	—	—	—
	24	26	28	28
Physical Education	2	2	2	2

Technical Industrial Education

Before the unification of Italy, industrial education was comparatively unknown in the country. In 1861, the year Italy achieved her independence and unity, there were only ten industrial schools in the peninsula. But the industrial development which followed the unification created a demand for industrial education. Thus we find that in the eight years between 1861 and 1869 the number of trade and handicraft schools increased from 10 to 154. There was no attempt made to give these schools a uniform organization until 1877, when an effort was made to bring them more into harmony with the actual needs of the country. In 1907, they were completely reorganized; five years later, having received greater financial support, they were classified qualitatively as schools of the first, second and third grade.

The present organization of industrial education is based on the Royal decree of October 31, 1923, No. 2523; June 3, 1924, No. 969; and October 6, 1930, No. 1379. These decrees established two types of institutions for industrial education, namely, the technical industrial school and the technical industrial institute.

Technical Industrial High Schools

Technical industrial schools are divided into two groups, royal and private. The former are of two classes: those under the complete control of the State, the outgrowth of the former complementary schools; and those under the control of the State and of local corporations. The total number of royal industrial schools is 41.

Industrial schools are established by royal decree at the request of the Ministry of National Education, in agreement with the Ministry of Finance, and on the recommendation of the Higher Council of National Education.

The second class of royal industrial schools, though under the supervision of the State, enjoy administrative autonomy. Toward their maintenance the Ministry of National Education contributes as a minimum the money necessary for the payment of the salaries of the staff. This sum usually represents about two-thirds of the total general expenses. All other expenses are defrayed by the recognized local corporations from their own budgets.

Private schools are established either by public corporations or by private persons. Their type and the duration of the courses vary, but in general their aims and purposes are similar to those of the royal schools. They adapt their curriculum especially to local requirements. There are at the present time ten private industrial schools. The Compulsory Provincial Consortiums for Technical Education, established by the law of January 7, 1929, No. 7, aim at keeping the schools in close contact with the productive forces of the country. These consortiums include the Ministry of National Education, various local corporations (municipalities, provinces, etc.), and local institutions especially interested in the progress and improvement of technical industrial education. Through the consortiums the Government grants subsidies for the maintenance of private industrial schools.

The budget of the Ministry of National Education for the fiscal year 1930-31 contained the following appropriations for the maintenance of the royal industrial schools and institutes:

	Lire	
Industrial schools	32,555,000	
Complementary schools	48,800,000	
	<hr/>	
		Lire 81,355,000.00
Buildings		1,399,191.20
		<hr/>
Total		82,754,191.20

For the maintenance of private schools 945,000 Lire were provided.

Recognized corporations contributed the sum of 10,400,000 lire toward the support of royal schools.

Towards the maintenance of the royal mining schools, the Ministry appropriated 370,000 lire, and the recognized corporations, 170,000 lire, making a total of 540,000 lire.

The *industrial schools* which offer a two-year general course and a specialization course of one year have for their purpose the preparation of boys for positions as chief technicians in industrial establishments and in construction yards, or as industrial experts. Applicants for admission to these schools must be at least thirteen years of age. Those holding an elementary school diploma or a diploma from a vocational preparatory school are not required to take an entrance examination. Industrial school students are derived for the most part from the various types of secondary vocational schools.

In the preparation of the programs of the industrial schools, the educational authorities have been guided by the fact that these schools are an end in themselves, though it is true that second year students and graduates are permitted to enter the higher course of the industrial institute.

Industrial schools are conducted along practical lines so that students receive an adequate preparation in the organization of labor. The curriculum includes scientific and cultural subjects which bear a definite relation to the technical subjects.

Regardless of the specialization, the same program has been prepared for the following subjects: general culture (Italian, history, geography, Fascist culture); mathematics, elementary physics, chemistry, electrotechnics, mechanics, and machinery. The courses in

the cultural subjects aim to integrate the knowledge acquired by the students in the secondary vocational schools. The aim in the teaching of technical subjects is to give students the necessary foundation for their professional preparation in the various specializations. Considerable time is devoted to technology, professional drawing, and office practice. The emphasis is on the practical exercises and professional subjects, since an adequate preparation in the technical subjects enables graduates to adjust themselves more rapidly and with greater ease in industry. The technical subjects are chosen with particular regard to the varying conditions of the environment. It is also born in mind that qualified workers are essentially business executives or leaders for whom questions concerning labor, its function, and maintenance have a special interest, and that a chief technician is required to have a thorough knowledge of labor and its organization in workshops and workyards. For this reason workshops and laboratories are connected with all these schools. Use is also made of the facilities of libraries, technological or industrial art collections and scientific studios.

The following are the programs of studies of the various types of technical industrial schools:

Hours per Week in the Various Sections of the Technical Industrial School

Subjects	Carpentry & Cabinet Making				Building Construction		Weavers		Spinners		Mining		Mechanics	
	I	II	I	II	I	II	I	II	I	II	I	II	I	II
General Culture:														
Italian, history,														
Fascist culture	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Geography	2	—	2	—	2	—	2	—	2	—	2	—	2	—
Mathematics	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Elements of physics														
& chemistry	3	—	3	—	3	—	3	—	3	—	3	—	3	—
Elements of electronics	—	3	—	3	—	3	—	3	—	3	—	3	—	3
Mechanics & machinery	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	—	—	3	3
Technology	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	—	4	4	3	3
Professional drawing	6	6	6	6	8	8	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	6
Religion	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Construction	—	—	4	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Weaving & textile	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	7	—	—	—	—	—	—
Spinning	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	6	—	—	—	—
Mineralogy & geology	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	—	—
Topography & drawing	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	4	—	—
Total	25	23	29	—	29	—	28	28	26	24	28	28	23	23
Practical Exercises	17	19	13		13		14	14	16	18	14	14	19	19
Physical Education	2	2	2		2		2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

The mechanic's section of the technical industrial school offers one-year courses for the following specialists: electricians, chemists, agricultural mechanics, industrial mechanics and motorists, mechanics of food industries, and heating engineers.

The subject of study and the number of hours per week in each of these specializations are given below:

Specialization for Electricians: electrotechnics and electrical plants (7), electrical appliances, measurements, and exercises (5), design drawing (4), machines (2), technology and electromechanical constructions (2), religion (1), practical exercises (16), physical education (2).

Specialization for Chemists: general and industrial chemistry (5), mechanical technology (2), chemical plants (5), professional drawing (4), religion (1), practical laboratory exercises (16), physical education (2).

Specialization for Agricultural Mechanics: mechanical technology (2), motors and agricultural machinery (4), irrigation and drainage machinery (3), professional drawing (4), religion (1), practical exercises (18), physical education (2).

Specialization for Industrial Mechanics and Motorists: raising and transportation of machinery (3), combustibles and lubrication (2), motors (6), mechanical technology (2), professional drawing (6), religion (1), practical exercises (16), physical education (2).

Specialization for Mechanics of Food Industries (Mills — Bakeries): mechanical technology (2), grain mills — machinery and plants (6), bakeries — machinery and plants (4), professional drawing (4), religion (1), practical exercises (16), physical education (2).

Specialization in Heating Engineering: physics (2), chemistry (2), heat technology (5), thermal motor machinery (3), steam, oven and gas generators (5), professional drawing (4), religion (1), practical exercises (16), physical education (2).

In addition to the foregoing specializations, there are pre-military courses in aviation given under the auspices of the National Corporation for Aeronautic Propaganda. At present these courses number more than sixty. Their total registration in the year 1932-33 was 2,542 pupils.

Special schools have also been established for instruction in radio-telegraphy. In 1929-30 nineteen royal industrial schools offered

courses in radiotechnics. The total registration in these courses was 1,109.

The possibility of developing the work in radiotechnics was the subject of a study by a commission appointed by the Minister of National Education and including several army representatives. Among the important measures recommended by the commission were:

1. The development of rapid courses in radiotechnics for industrial school teachers.
2. The establishment of forty preparatory evening courses.
3. The establishment of twelve industrial day schools specializing in radio-electricity.
4. The establishment of five industrial day institutes specializing in radiotechnics.
5. The introduction of subjects dealing with radiotechnics in all radio schools.

The following is the program of studies for the three-year specialization course for radio technicians:

Technical Industrial School
Specialization for Radio Apparatus Workers

Subjects	Hours per Week		
	I	II	III
General Culture:			
Italian, history, geography, Fascist culture	4	3	2
Mathematics	4	3	—
Elements of physics	4	2	—
Electrotechnics, electrical exercises & measurements	—	6	4
Mechanics and Machinery	3	2	—
Elements of chemistry & technology	3	2	2
Professional drawing	6	4	4
Radio-Telephone legislation & regulations	—	—	1
Telegraphy & Telephony	—	—	4
Radiotechnics, exercises, & relative measurements	—	6	10
Religion	1	1	1
	—	—	—
Total	25	29	28
Practical Exercises:			
Auditive transmission & reception of Morse signals	2	2	2
Laboratory & mounting of radios, telephone apparatus & practice work in factories	15	11	12
Physical Education	2	2	2

This course may be followed by the one-year specialization course for radio electricians:

Final Year—Course of Technical School for Mechanics
Specialization for Radio Electricians

Subjects	Hours per Week
Electrotechnics, exercises, & electrical measurements	5
Radiotechnics, exercises, radio-electrical measurements	9
Professional drawing	4
Telegraphy & telephone service with exercises	4
Radio legislation & regulations	1
Geography of communications	1
Religion	1
	—
Total	25

Practical Exercises:

Mounting radio-telephone apparatus	10
Auditive transmission, and reception of Morse signals	5
Physical Education	2

Special Industrial Schools and Courses

In the smaller cities and towns where it is not feasible to establish the regular technical industrial school offering a complete course, the Government has established the following institutions: royal laboratory schools, full-time apprenticeships schools, part-time apprenticeship schools, trade courses, and special courses.

The royal *laboratory schools*, or workshop schools, with a two-year course, admit children not less than ten years of age who possess a diploma from either a royal vocational school or from a royal complementary school. Pupils who have been promoted from the fourth to the fifth grade of the elementary school within the past three years, may also gain admission by passing an entrance examination. A certificate is awarded on the completion of the course. The practical exercises vary from 30 to 36 hours per week. There are fifty laboratory schools with a total registration of approximately 1300 pupils.

The *full-time apprenticeship schools* offer a course lasting three or four years for boys and three years for girls. They admit children over 13 years of age, who have a diploma from a royal vocational

school or from a royal complementary school. Pupils who have been promoted from the fourth to the fifth grade of the elementary school, during the preceding three years, are required to pass an entrance examination. On the completion of the course students receive a certificate. At least 24 hours of practical work a week are required. Graduates of royal apprenticeship schools for boys are permitted to take an examination for the qualifying diploma as skilled laborers. They are excused from examinations in strictly cultural subjects. There are sixty full-time day apprenticeship schools, including nine for girls, with a total registration of 7,586 pupils.

In length of course, requirements for admission, and type of certificate awarded the *part-time industrial apprenticeship schools* are similar to the full-time day schools. The number of hours per week devoted to the practical exercises varies in accordance with the special characteristics of the school. In no case is the number less than that devoted to cultural subjects. There are eleven part-time apprenticeship schools, with a total attendance of 2,149 pupils.

Children not less than fourteen years of age, who possess an elementary school diploma, may register for *trade courses*. The duration of these courses varies up to a maximum of four years. A certificate is awarded on the completion of a course. Apprentices and laborers who have completed one of these courses are permitted to take a qualifying examination as expert laborers.

Children not less than fourteen years of age are permitted to register for *special courses*, which in general last one year, but may vary according to their special characteristics. Pupils completing one of these courses receive a diploma. The total number of these courses given in the year 1932-33 was 156; their total registration was 12,471 pupils.

Technical Industrial Institutes

The *technical industrial institute*, which offers a course of four years, admits children of not less than thirteen years of age who have a diploma from either a royal secondary vocational school or from a royal complementary school. Pupils who have been admitted to a lower grade secondary school are required to pass an entrance examination. The institutes prepare students for the following spe-

cializations: electrician, miner, textile worker, dyer, builder, chemist, and radiotechnician.

The principle underlying the programs of study in technical industrial institutes is the same as in other technical schools. The following subjects are common to the various specializations: Italian literature, history, geography, physics, foreign languages, mathematics, elements of law.

An exception is made in the course for specialized radiotechnicians which includes a course in the geography of radio communications.

Even the courses in technical subjects aim at the greatest possible uniformity, compatible with the requirements of the specializations.

In the preparation of the programs of the higher course of technical industrial institutes the authorities have not overlooked the fact that an industrial executive should have a knowledge not only of the principle of labor organization but also of the various processes of his specialty, even though he may not succeed in acquiring manual dexterity comparable to that of the better workers.

Wherever possible and necessary the specialization courses in technical industrial schools and institutes have been made more thorough and complete. Thus, in the last year, the programs of study for expert mechanics and electricians have been divided. A similar division has been made in the programs of the last two years of the technical industrial institute for textile workers and dyers, and for the technical school of textile workers. These programs have been divided into two distinct courses, one for weavers, and the other for spinners.

Under the former organization, the industrial institutes provided a schedule of forty-eight hours of class instruction per week. Excluding religion and physical education, this schedule is now reduced to forty-one hours per week for technical industrial institutes and schools.

The present schedule of forty-one hours per week may appear heavy in comparison with the programs of the classical secondary schools. It must be remembered, however, that practical exercises, lessons in drawing and physical education, which require no special mental effort on the part of the student, are allotted considerable time in the programs of the technical institutes and schools. Besides, there is very little home work assigned to students in these institutes.

Similar schools in foreign countries provide a schedule varying from forty-two to fifty hours per week. The following table shows the total number of hours of class instruction per week in technical industrial institutes:

Specialization Course for Mechanics & Electricians

Subjects	Common			Mechanics	Electricians
	I	II	III	IV	V
Italian literature	3	3	3	3	3
History	3	3	—	—	—
Foreign language	3	3	2	—	—
Mathematics	4	4	4	—	—
Geography	—	2	—	—	—
Physics	4	3	—	—	—
Elements of law	—	—	—	2	2
Mechanics	—	4	3	—	—
Machinery	—	—	3	3	3
Chemistry	3	2	—	—	—
Natural sciences	2	—	—	—	—
Drawing	4	4	6	7	6
Electrotechnics:					
General electrotechnics	—	—	3	3	6
Electrical plants	—	—	—	—	3
Electromechanical constructions and related technologies	—	—	—	—	2
Mechanical technology	3	3	3	5	—
Religion	1	1	1	1	1
Total	30	32	28	24	26
Practical Exercises:					
Technological laboratory	2	2	2	3	—
Machine laboratory	—	—	—	3	—
Electrotechnical laboratory	—	—	—	—	9
Laboratory practice	10	8	12	12	7
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2

Specialization Course for Miners

Subjects	Hours per Week			
	I	II	III	IV
Italian literature	3	3	3	3
History	3	3	—	—
Foreign language	3	3	2	—
Mathematics	4	4	4	—
Geography	—	—	2	—
Physics	4	3	—	—
Elements of law	—	—	—	2
Mechanics	—	4	3	—
Machinery	—	—	—	3
Chemistry	4	3	3	3
Natural sciences	—	2	3	—
Drawing	6	3	3	3
Descriptive geometry & related drawing	—	4	—	—
Mineralogy	3	—	—	—
Topography	—	—	3	3
Constructions	—	—	—	3
Electrotechnics	—	—	3	3
Mining art	—	—	3	5
Mechanical preparation of minerals	—	—	—	2
Hygiene and first aid	—	—	—	2
Religion	1	1	1	1
Total	31	33	33	33
Practical Exercises:				
Mineralogy	1	—	—	—
Geology	—	—	2	—
Chemical laboratory	—	5	3	4
Topography	—	—	4	3
Electrotechnics	—	—	—	2
Machine practice	5	4	—	—
Carpentry	5	—	—	—
Physical Education	2	2	2	2

Specialization Course for Textile Workers & Dyers

Subjects	Hours per Week					
	Common	Textile Workers				Dyers
	I	II	III	IV	III	IV
Italian literature	3	3	3	3	3	3
History	3	3	—	—	—	—
Foreign language	3	3	2	—	2	—
Mathematics	4	4	4	—	4	—
Geography	—	2	—	—	—	—
Physics	4	3	—	—	—	—
Elements of law	—	—	—	2	—	2
Mechanics	—	3	3	—	3	—
Machinery	—	—	—	2	—	2
General chemistry	3	3	—	—	—	—
Technological chemistry	—	—	—	—	3	3
Natural sciences	2	—	—	—	—	—
Drawing	6	—	—	—	—	—
Analytical chemistry	—	2	—	—	3	—
Analytical chemistry	—	2	2	—	2	—
Chemistry of dyes	—	—	3	3	6	6
Apprenticeship	—	—	—	3	—	3
Ornamental textile drawing	—	—	5	6	—	—
Technology of mechanical weavers & of preparation of machines	2	2	3	2	—	2
Composition, analysis, drawing & manufacture of textiles	6	5	5	6	—	—
Spinners	—	2	2	4	—	—
Electrotechnics	—	—	2	—	2	—
Religion	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total	37	36	35	32	29	22
Practical Exercises:						
Weaving & spinning laboratory exercises	5	4	6	9	—	—
Laboratory of dyeing & technological chemistry	—	2	—	—	12	19
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2	2

Specialized Course for Builders

Subjects	Hours per Week			
	I	II	III	IV
Italian literature	3	3	3	3
History	3	3	—	—
Foreign language	3	3	2	—
Mathematics	4	4	4	—
Geography	—	2	—	—
Physics	4	3	—	—
Elements of law	—	—	—	2
Mechanics	—	3	—	—
Machinery	—	—	—	2
Chemistry	3	2	—	—
Natural sciences	3	—	—	—
Plant organization and technology of constructions	—	3	4	5
Resistance of materials	—	—	3	—
Building, road & hydraulic constructions	—	3	3	3
Construction drawing	—	—	6	8
Projection drawing & architectural drawing	4	4	2	2
Topography & related drawing	—	—	—	2
Evaluation	—	—	2	—
Electrotechnics	1	1	1	1
Religion	—	—	—	—
Total	28	34	34	32
Practical Exercises:				
Technological laboratory	—	—	—	3
Practice	12	8	8	7
Physical education	2	2	2	2

Specialized Course for Chemists

Subjects	Hours per Week			
	I	II	III	IV
Italian literature	3	3	3	3
History	3	3	—	—
Foreign language	3	3	2	—
Mathematics	4	4	4	—
Geography	—	2	—	—
Physics	4	3	2	—
Elements of law	—	—	—	2
Mechanics	—	3	—	—
Machinery	—	—	2	—
Chemistry	5	6	—	—
Natural sciences	3	—	—	—
Drawing	6	—	—	—
Physical chemistry	—	—	2	—
Electrochemistry	—	—	2	3
General analytical chemistry	—	3	3	—
Technical analyses	—	—	—	4
Industrial & dyeing chemistry	—	—	5	6
Chemical plants & related drawing	—	—	3	4
Religion	1	1	1	1
Total	32	31	29	23
Practical exercises	9	10	12	18
Physical education	2	2	2	2

Specialized Course for Radiotechnicians

Subjects	Hours per Week			
	I	II	III	IV
Italian literature	3	3	3	3
History	3	3	—	—
Foreign language	3	3	2	—
Mathematics	4	4	4	—
Geography	—	2	—	1
Physics	4	3	—	—
Elements of law	—	—	—	2
Mechanics	—	2	2	—
Machinery	—	—	—	2
Chemistry	3	2	—	—
Natural sciences	2	—	—	—
Drawing	4	4	4	4
Mechanical technology	3	3	2	—
Electrotechnics	—	—	5	—
Telegraphy, telephony	—	—	—	5
Instruments, electrical & radio, electrical measurements	—	—	2	2
General radiotechnics	—	—	5	6
Legislation & regulations for radiotechnics	—	—	—	1
Religion	1	1	1	1
Total	30	30	30	27
Practical Exercises:				
Technological laboratory	2	—	—	—
Laboratory for electrical & radio-electrical measurements	—	—	3	4
Shop Work	9	9	—	—
Mounting radio apparatus	—	—	6	8
Auditive transmission & re- ception of Morse signals	—	2	2	2
Physical Education	2	2	2	2

A certificate is awarded on the completion of a course. Graduates of royal industrial institutes are permitted to take a qualifying examination as industrial technical experts. They are exempted from passing examinations in strictly industrial subjects.

Statistics on Technical Industrial Schools and Institutes

The following table shows the number of technical industrial schools and institutes, the number of teachers and administrators, the technical personnel, the students, and the graduates in 1933-34:

Schools and Institutes	Administrative & Teaching Tech.			Pupils	Grad- uates
	No.	Staff	Personnel		
Royal Tech. Ind. Institutes	27	542	336	5,181	856
Accredited Tech. Ind. Institutes	7	123	62	1,087	221
Royal Tech. Ind. Schools	95	760	421	3,588	1,658
Accredited Tech. Ind. Schools	15	121	75	775	337
Vocational Normal Schools for Girls	3	33	34	161	95
Royal Vocational Schools for Girls	13	108	64	333	81
Approved Vocational Schools for Girls	5	69	32	315	76
Private Industrial Schools Depend- ing on Provincial Consortiums	547	2,588	—	53,001	—
Royal Practice Schools—Part time	10	88	20	1,244	197
Royal Laboratory Schools	4	31	27	394	62
Evening and Holiday Trade Schools	93	848	250	12,582	3,077
Royal and Approved Pre-Aeronau- tical Courses and Preparatory Courses for Royal Army	62	293	248	2,673	1,527
Total	881	5,604	1,469	81,234	8,187

Technical Nautical Education

History

When Italy became a united nation, nautical education varied throughout the peninsula in accordance with the previous political divisions. The number of schools was very large, and their organization and equipment differed greatly. In some places these were altogether inadequate.

Government nautical schools had been established in Genoa, Cagliari, and Nice in the Kingdom of Sardinia as early as 1827. More than sixty years earlier, in 1766, Grand Duke Leopold of Tuscany had founded a nautical school at Leghorn which continued to function until the first French invasion, and was reopened in 1812. The Papal Government established a school in Rimini in 1824. Nautical schools existed in 1786 at Meta, Carotto, Alberi in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. In 1809 they were reorganized by King Joachim Murat.

In 1861 Minister Menabrea appointed a royal commission,

presided over by General Bixio, to study nautical education, and to propose whatever reforms it deemed necessary. The work of this Commission was suspended for various reasons, but nevertheless, several important laws on nautical education were passed in the next few years.

The Royal decree of October 1, 1865, No. 2577, reorganized the evening technical and nautical schools and the Technical Institute of Genoa, respectively into the Merchant Marine Institute and the Industrial and Professional Institute.

In the Royal decree of October 16, 1865, No. 1712, dealing with industrial and professional education, the following important provisions concerning nautical education were made:

- a. The Merchant Marine Institute was to be known as the "Royal Institute of Merchant Marine".
- b. Preparatory courses were to be offered.
- c. The subjects of study were definitely outlined.
- d. Practical instruction was to be provided.

The Royal decree of November 22, 1866, No. 3347, divided technical nautical education into two classes to be given respectively in:

1. Nautical schools which were to prepare students for qualifying examinations for the posts of captain of large cabotage, naval constructor of the second class, and machinist of the second class.
2. Royal merchant marine institutes which were to prepare students for examinations for the posts of captain of long voyages, naval constructor of the first class, and machinist of the first class.

As a consequence of the measures introduced by the decree, another decree was issued on November 22, 1866, No. 3394, which provided that:

1. The higher institutes of Genoa, Leghorn, and Palermo, and the nautical schools of Piano di Sorrento and Savona should be designated as royal institutes of merchant marine.
2. The schools of Chiavari, Portoferraio, Recco, Riposto, S. Remo, Spezia, Trapani, and Viareggio should be designated as royal nautical schools.
3. A royal nautical school should be attached to the Industrial

and Professional Institute of Naples, which would take the place of the Royal Institute of Merchant Marine.

4. The merchant marine sections of the institutes of Ancona, Cagliari, and Messina should be suppressed; and nautical schools connected with the respective industrial and professional institutes should be founded in their place.

5. Royal nautical schools should be established at Amalfi, Barletta, Gaeta, and Procida, provided the communes would undertake to furnish the buildings and equipment, etc.

6. The nautical schools of Alghero, Oneglia, Porto Santo Stefano and Rimini were to be removed from the State budget.

In 1867 the principal nautical school of Venice was organized as a Royal Institute of Merchant Marine.

But though the reforms introduced tended to improve the quality of teaching, the authorities noted that this was still inadequate along certain lines, especially in the literary and scientific subjects. A radical reform was therefore undertaken in 1873, by means of the Royal decree of January 30, 1873, No. 1290, which provided for a division of studies leading to various ranks. There were established:

1. Biennial nautical schools for the preparation of captain of large cabotage.

2. Nautical institutes, with three-year courses, for the preparation of captains of large ships for long voyages.

3. Special schools of steam mechanics with a four-year course for the preparation of machinists of the first grade. These were to be established only in cities having large mechanical factories.

4. Special schools of steam engineering, with a two-year course, for the preparation of machinists of the second grade.

5. Special schools for naval constructors, with a three-year course, for the preparation of naval constructors of the first class.

6. Special schools for naval constructors, for the preparation of naval constructors of the second class.

The next important legislation in the field of nautical education was the Royal decree of January 1, 1891, No. 13, which, among other changes, made the admission requirements for nautical schools more severe. It stated that elementary school certificates were inadequate for admission, and that thenceforth attendance at a two-year

preparatory course would be obligatory for applicants. A little later a technical school diploma was required for admission.

The law of October 11, 1917, No. 1661, transferred all nautical schools from the jurisdiction of the Minister of Public Instruction to that of the Ministry of Marine. The same law increased from three to four years the courses leading to the diplomas of captain of long voyages, machinist and naval constructor of the first class. It also provided for the establishment of nautical schools for the training of low grade officers in the merchant marine.

With their transfer to the Ministry of Marine, nautical institutes became secondary schools of the second grade. The preparatory courses and the two-year course for lower grades in the merchant marine were abolished.

The Fascist Government in 1923 revised the entire system of nautical education. Among the changes introduced were the following: The program of studies was co-ordinated with that of the secondary schools; the number of nautical schools was reduced; entrance examinations were made obligatory; eligibility for entrance to advanced technical schools was required for admission; final diploma examinations were introduced. The immediate effect of this reform was the rapid decrease in the number of students registered in nautical institutes; registration declined from a maximum of 5,045 in 1921-22 to 1,036 in 1932-33.

In 1928, the nautical schools were transferred again to the jurisdiction of the Ministry of National Education. In this same year, a navigation society, the "Nazario Sauro" was founded with the object of supplying practical instruction to marine captains. This society operates a training ship, "Patria," on which a course lasting from twelve to eighteen months is provided.

Program of Study in Nautical Institutes

The present programs of study in nautical institutes were approved by the Royal decree of August 28, 1924, No. 1449, and went into effect during the school year 1925-26. However, the programs have been slightly modified by the royal decrees of June 4, 1925, No. 1043; September 4, 1925, No. 1656; October 29, 1925, No. 2041; October 23, 1927, No. 2066; April 4, 1929, No. 695.

Such changes as the following have been made: practical exercises in telegraphy and radio-telegraphy are being required in the machinist section; law and economics have been modified in accordance with recent legislation and the fundamental principles of Fascist doctrine. The cultural subjects, Italian literature and history, are given greater emphasis, not only because graduates of nautical institutes reflect the prestige of Italy in foreign countries, but also because they are eligible for admission to the Royal Higher Naval Institute and must be properly prepared for the work of this school. Though not in the possession of either the classical or the scientific maturity certificate, graduates from the captain section are permitted to take the competitive examinations for admission to the service for the Royal Naval Academy, and the qualification examinations for commissions in the Royal Navy.

The following are the programs of studies for the three sections of the technical nautical institute:

Technical Nautical Institute
Specialization Course for Captains

Subjects	Hours per Week				Total
	I	II	III	IV	
Italian literature	5	5	3	3	16
History	3	2	3	—	8
Geography	3	3	—	—	6
Mathematics	5	5	3	—	13
Geometrical drawing	2	—	—	—	2
English language	3	3	3	3	12
French language	3	3	1	1	8
Physics	—	2	3	3	8
Elements of chemistry	—	2	—	—	2
Equipment & manouvres	2	2	3	3	10
Law & economics	—	—	2	3	5
Elements of machines	—	—	—	3	3
Elements of naval construction	—	—	—	2	2
Astronomy	—	—	3	5	8
Navigation	—	2	3	3	8
Meteorology & oceanography	—	—	—	2	2
Commercial geography	—	—	2	—	2
Naval hygiene	—	—	—	1	1
Religion	1	1	1	1	4
Total	27	30	30	33	120
Practical Exercises:					
Sea	2	2	—	—	4
Telegraphy & radio-telegraphy	—	—	1	2	3
Physical education	2	2	2	2	8

Technical Nautical Institute
Specialization Course for Machinists

Subjects	Hours per Week				Total
	I	II	III	IV	
Italian literature	5	5	3	3	16
History	3	2	3	—	8
Geography	3	3	—	—	6
Mathematics	5	5	3	—	13
Geometric drawing	2	—	—	—	2
English language	3	3	3	3	12
French language	3	3	—	—	6
Physics	—	2	3	3	8
Elements of chemistry	—	2	—	—	2
Equipment & manouvres	2	—	—	—	2
Elements of naval construction	—	—	—	2	2
Applied mechanics	—	—	3	—	3
Description geometrical drawing	—	2	—	—	2
Machines	—	3	5	7	15
Machine design	—	—	6	8	14
Electrical measurements	—	—	—	2	2
Religion	1	1	1	1	4
	—	—	—	—	—
Total	27	31	30	29	117
Practical Exercises :					
Marine	2	2	—	—	4
Telegraphy & radio-telegraphy	—	—	1	2	3
Shop Work	—	2	4	4	10
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	8

*Technical Nautical Institute
Specialization Course for Builders*

Subjects	Hours per Week				Total
	I	II	III	IV	
Italian literature	5	5	3	3	16
History	3	2	3	—	8
Geography	3	3	—	—	6
Mathematics	5	5	3	—	13
Geometric drawing	2	—	—	—	2
English language	3	3	3	3	12
French language	3	3	—	—	6
Physics	—	2	3	3	8
Elements of chemistry	—	2	—	—	2
Equipment & manouvres	2	—	—	—	2
Law & economics	—	—	2	3	5
Elements of machines	—	—	—	3	3
Applied mechanics	—	—	3	—	3
Descriptive geometrical drawing	—	2	—	—	2
Naval theory (theory of ships)	—	—	3	3	6
Naval construction	—	2	4	5	11
Naval construction—drawing	—	—	6	6	12
Religion	1	1	1	1	4
Total	27	30	34	30	121
Practical Exercises:					
Sea	2	2	—	—	4
Naval Construction	—	2	2	2	6
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	8

Graduates of technical nautical institutes, by continuing their studies at the Higher Naval Institute of Naples and the higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences, may obtain the degrees awarded by these institutions. Graduates of the captain section are admitted to the Royal Naval Academy of Leghorn and may thus qualify as officers of vessels in the Royal Marine.

Statistics on Technical Nautical Institutes

At the present time there are seventeen nautical institutes offering four-year courses. Three of the schools have all three sections—those for captains, engineers, and builders; four have only the captain section; the others have the captain and engineer sections. The four institutes

at Camogli, Gaeta, Lussimpiccolo, and Sorrento have also the lower course to which girls are admitted. The total registration in 1933-34 was 1,453 students; the number of teachers and administrators was 318; the number of graduates, 249. The certificate awarded upon the satisfactory completion of the course is valid for admission to the Royal Higher Naval Institute at Naples.

Private Technical Vocational Schools and Institutes

In addition to the foregoing government, accredited, and private technical schools and institutes there were in 1932-33, the following private technical institutes and free schools depending on the provincial consortiums:

	No.	Teachers & Administrators	Students
Private Technical Institutes—complete course	46	602	3,964
Private Technical Institutes—lower course only	11	990	7,107
Free Agricultural Schools Depending on Provincial Consortiums	23	139	1,399
Free Commercial Schools Depending on Provincial Consortiums	40	453	6,630
Free Industrial Schools Depending on Provincial Consortiums	547	2,588	53,001

Education in Art

Before 1923 arts and crafts were considered a division of industrial education, but the government decree of 1923 transferred all art schools and institutes to the Ministry of National Education. At the present time education in art is provided for at three types of institutions: schools and institutes of art, academies of fine arts, and art lyceums and conservatories of music.

Schools and Institutes of Art

The schools of art are for the training of artisans, and the institutes for the training of chief artisans. The art school represents the first grade or lower course of the art institute. The students re-

ceive art and cultural training of a general nature, in addition to shop work.

The following table shows the number of each type of art schools and institutes:

Art institutes	6
Industrial art institutes and schools	10
Applied art schools	16
Professional art schools	25
Special school for work in alabaster at Volterra	1
Special school for coral engraving at Torre del Greco	1
	<hr/>
	59

The total combined registration in the fifty-nine art schools and institutes in 1933-34 was 7,284. Of these students 6,148 were boys. The teaching staff numbered 437, and the graduates 1,004.

Academies of Fine Arts and Art Lyceums

The art lyceums have a four-year course. The requirements for admission include a diploma from a vocational school or promotion to the fourth year of a secondary school. Besides training in art, these lyceums provide a general cultural education. On the completion of the course students receive a maturity diploma in art studies.

There are two classes of art lyceums, one for the preparation of students for academies of fine arts, the other for the preparation of students for the higher institutes of architecture and for examinations to teach drawing in secondary and vocational schools.

In 1933-34 there were nine academies of fine arts and lyceums of art with 1,409 students, of whom 492 were girls; there were 208 teachers and 286 graduates.

Royal Conservatories of Music

The royal conservatories of music, of which there are six, are government institutions under the supervision of the Ministry of National Education. They award the normal and higher diplomas (*licen-*

za normale e superiore) upon the completion of a course of studies which varies from four to nine years. The following table gives some information concerning each of these conservatories:

Location	Name	Founded	Length of Course	Approximate Enrollment
Palermo	Vincenzo Bellini	1721	5—9	285
Naples	S. Pietro a Majella	1806	5—9	300
Milan	Giuseppe Verdi	1807	5—9	211
Rome	Santa Cecilia	1876	—	376
Parma	Arrigo Boito	1818	4—9	166
Florence	Luigi Cherubini	1862	7—9	200

The total number of students in the six royal conservatories of music in 1933-34 was 1,227, of whom 527 were girls. There were also 212 teachers and 148 graduates.

Approved Musical Institutes

These institutes are under the general supervision of the Ministry of National Education. In 1933-34 there were 12 of these institutes, with 1,772 students, 299 teachers, and 121 graduates .

CHAPTER VII.

AUXILIARY EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES

The century-old belief that the school had only to teach "reading, writing, and arithmetic" was still popular in Italy until very recently, but within the past few years the conception of the school as an institution not only for the cultivation of the intellect of the pupil, but for the education of the entire man has spread rapidly throughout the country and has been accepted in its full significance.

The Italian elementary educational system now aims not only to impart a broad basic knowledge, but to educate the mind and soul of the children, to watch over their moral and physical development, and to produce citizens with a firm consciousness of their country's destiny.

The elementary school alone cannot attain all these aims, and its work is therefore supplemented by that of institutions for the care of children before and after the regular elementary school ages and organizations for the supervision of the extra-curricular activities of school children. The aim of these institutions is to make perfect the work of the school proper and to complete the education of the child in all its phases: physical, intellectual, moral, social, and patriotic. Most of the institutions existed in a more or less embryonic form before the establishment of the Fascist régime, but under Fascism their work has been greatly improved and extended, and their usefulness has increased enormously.

Chief among these institutions is the National *Balilla* Institute, in which all children from eight to eighteen years of age are organized for physical, political, and civic education. Other extra-curricular organizations are school camps, the *Doposcuola* (After School Institute), recreation centers, school associations, school and public libraries, the Junior Red Cross Society, and the *Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro* (National Leisure Time Institute).

The Balilla Institute

Closely affiliated with the elementary and secondary schools of Italy is the National *Balilla* Institute, which has as its purpose the physical education of the youth of the country, the development of sports, and the creation of a live and dynamic patriotism. The organization has often been called the cornerstone of the Fascist régime.

In pre-Fascist days physical education was practically non-existent in Italy. The old and strict intellectualist school had entirely abandoned physical training, and although early in the present century attempts had been made to encourage sports and gymnastic clubs in the schools, these efforts had failed to yield satisfactory results. Only with the advent of Fascism did the Italians begin to appreciate fully the high spiritual value of physical education.

Professor Gentile declared that a complete system of education should aim at the development of the body as well as the spirit. "For the pupil is not solely mind. He has a body also; and spirit and body are so closely and intimately connected that the health of the one is dependent on the soundness of the other." He emphasized the fact that physical education should and must be encouraged, as spiritual training and for the formation of character. "The teacher of physical education," he said, "must always bear in mind that he is not dealing only with *bodies*—bodies to be moved around, to be lined up, or rushed around a track. He, too, is training souls, and collaborates with all the teachers in the moral preparation and advancement of mankind."

But it was Gentile's belief that the schools could not carry out an adequate program of physical education, and in 1923 he relieved them of this task, and entrusted it to the *Ente Nazionale per l'Educazione Fisica*, (National Institute for Physical Education), a self-governing organization, which received full control of physical training in the schools. Despite the lively debates and fiery criticism which this action occasioned, it proved a highly useful measure, at least temporarily. It soon became obvious, however, that the *Ente* lacked the necessary equipment, and had insufficient resources, to carry out its work adequately. For this reason, by the Royal decree of November 20, 1927, No. 2341, the *Ente* was merged with the *Opera Nazionale Balilla per l'Educazione Fisica* (National *Balilla* Institute of Physical Education), an incorporated body, which the Government had es-

tablished by the law of April 3, 1926, No. 2247. The *Balilla* Institute was placed under the direct supervision of the Head of the Government and, by the Royal decree of September 14, 1929, under the control of the Ministry of National Education. It has headquarters in Rome and carries out its functions through the medium of the *Balilla* for boys from 8 to 14 years of age, the *Avanguardisti* for boys from 14 to 18 years of age, and the *Piccole* and *Giovani Italiane* for little and older Italian girls.

The law establishing the *Balilla* Institute was followed by the Royal decrees of January 9 and April 9, 1928, which ordered the dissolution of all juvenile organizations and clubs unconnected with this Institute, and their absorption by the Institute.

All persons who by gifts or regular donations help to support the Institute are eligible to become members. There are three classes of members: patrons, life members, and annual members. The Institute awards diplomas and medals to especially deserving members and to persons who secure a considerable number of new members, or who have otherwise rendered special services on its behalf.

The Institute is maintained by members' subscription, by bequests, donations, gifts, and subsidies; and by yearly appropriations from the budgets of the Ministries of the Interior, Education, and Corporations (Guilds). The administration of the Institute is entrusted to a Central Council which, in addition to a president and a vice-president, has twenty-four councillors nominated by royal decree on the proposal of the Head of the Government. By the Royal decree of August 10, 1927, No. 1554, all the powers of the Central Council were delegated to the President.

In each province there is a provincial committee, consisting of a president and councillors who carry out the orders and instructions issued by the Central Council of the Institute, and provide for the routine services connected with the guidance and education of the youth in the province. In each commune there is a council to supervise the local organizations of the Institute. This consists of a president and councillors, whose number is fixed by the provincial committee in proportion to the number of inhabitants in the commune.

The *Avanguardisti* organizations are under the command of officers of the Fascist Militia, chosen from among those who, by character and education, are best fitted to be teachers. The commanders of the *Balilla* are, for the most part, elementary school teachers, who

are also members of the Militia. In this connection it is important to note that the elementary school teacher collaborates voluntarily and actively in the work of the *Balilla*. The Italian teacher has come to understand that his work, if it is to be really efficient cannot be confined to the classroom; he realizes fully that his mission is to educate, not only to instruct, the youth; and he appreciates the fact that he can exert salutary influence upon his pupils even outside of the classroom.

Each year, in connection with the ceremony of the *Leva fascista*, May 24, the anniversary of the foundation of the *fasci di combattimento*, members of the *Avanguardisti* organizations who have reached the age of eighteen years enter the Voluntary Militia for National Safety. The ceremony takes place all over Italy. Fifty thousand young men took part in the Fascist levy in 1927, and 80,000 in the second; and every year since then over 100,000 well-trained *Avanguardisti* have taken the solemn oath of loyalty to the Duce and Fascism. During the year XIII which ended in October 1935, over 450,000 men entered the Fascist Party as members of the *fasci di combattimento*.

The following table gives the enrolment on October 28, 1934, in the *Balilla* Institute by regions:

Regions	Balilla	Avanguardisti	Little Italian Girls	Young Italian Girls
Piedmont	165,494	48,537	151,602	24,820
Liguria	70,972	22,551	64,698	10,371
Lombardy	305,490	78,967	277,941	35,574
Venezia Tridentina	25,028	7,169	23,424	5,146
Venetia	233,770	60,846	191,407	22,299
Venezia Giulia & Zara	39,089	11,775	36,381	6,473
Emilia	194,286	50,819	166,591	21,650
Tuscany	150,795	45,094	120,312	16,249
Marches	69,284	15,903	56,646	5,141
Umbria	38,977	9,700	30,668	3,370
Latium	116,426	26,096	92,238	11,509
Abruzzi & Molise	70,014	16,888	53,811	3,895
Campania	127,056	36,435	97,062	9,875
Puglie	103,014	30,271	83,075	8,927
Lucania	17,822	5,072	14,204	1,080
Calabrie	47,721	17,898	32,841	2,075
Sicily	138,023	39,200	112,450	2,075
Sardinia	35,011	11,653	29,058	4,120
Kingdom	1,948,272	534,874	1,634,409	200,581
Colonies	4,325	1,100	3,280	390
Total	1,952,597	535,974	1,637,689	200,971

Activities of the Balilla Institute

Physical Training

Pupils of the elementary and secondary schools receive instruction in gymnastics in the gymnasiums of the *Balilla* Institute. Here also the *Balilla* and *Avanguardisti* receive military training and participate in all kinds of sports: fencing, cycling, football, swimming and riding. The work and aptitude of each pupil are closely studied. Of particular importance are the sailor, cyclist and skiing and air defence sections which at present are training no less than ten thousand young men.

The athletic games organized by the Institute are held in the municipal and provincial stadiums, chiefly on national holidays. Regional champions are selected on the skill displayed at these games. The champions for the "Littorio," the most important contest arranged

for the *Avanguardisti*, are chosen from among the regional champions. This contest is usually held on the anniversary of the Fascist march on Rome.

The naval and aeronautical training of young boys is also under the jurisdiction of the *Balilla* Institute. Seamen units (*centurie*) have been organized in all towns wherein nautical studies are feasible, and special libraries and schools for the study of seamanship and artisanship in trades connected therewith have been founded. A home for *Balilla* sailors, with accommodations for 2,500 young boys, has been built at Anzio, which will bring together in one great building all the young sailors at present scattered between Venice and Bari, Naples and Cagliari, in old training ships which time and experience have proved to be ill-suited for carrying out a sound program of technical education. At Anzio, the young Fascist sailors will, in due course, become mechanics, electricians, motorists, signalmen, and wireless operators.

The *Balilla* Institute also offers courses in airship steering which are attended by hundreds of *Avanguardisti*. A number of provincial committees have started pre-aviation schools for motorists and wireless operators, and special courses in anti-aircraft work.

The Institute is building *Balilla* homes everywhere in Italy, with a view to concentrating all juvenile activities and providing its young members not only with agreeable recreation centers, but also with centers of educational development and moral guidance. The Institute is publishing a technical treatise, which contains not only plans for the construction of *Balilla* homes and of model gymnasiums, but also the rules governing the several sports and initiatives of the provincial committees.

Health Service

In connection with its program of physical education the Institute maintains a health service for its members. Dispensaries have been established throughout the country where doctors of recognized merit examine the boys and girls seeking medical attention, study their bodily development, distribute medicines gratis, prescribe treatment, and when necessary send the patients to special convalescent homes. Medical treatment is provided for all members in cases of illness. Patients who cannot be properly treated at home are sent to nursing homes con-

trolled by the Institute. Preventive care is provided in solaria and in seaside and mountain camps.

A highly efficient organization has been set up by the *Balilla* Institute to carry out its health program. It is estimated that over one hundred thousand members are cared for in camps each year. With a view to ensuring the continuity and efficacy of mountain treatment, the Institute has established permanent camps in regions where the climate is most likely to exercise a beneficial influence on boys of feeble constitution and on those predisposed to disease.

The Institute has recently added a new service to its health program in the form of accident insurance. All regular members are entitled to this form of insurance. It provides for 30,000 lire in the case of permanent total disability; an indemnity of 10 lire per day for a maximum period of 70 days, in the case of temporary disability; and the sum of 10,000 lire to the family of the insured in case of death.

Education for Citizenship

The program of education for citizenship carried out by the Institute is of special importance. Its aim is to mould the minds of children who may later be called upon to fill public offices. The work is accomplished by means of steady propaganda, the establishment of continuation schools, after-school institutes, reading rooms, circulating libraries, and visits to museums and public monuments. The program covers a wide field: walks, lectures, group games, interscholastic contests, plays written expressly for the *Balilla* and *Avanguardisti*, and patriotic, scientific and historical films. The Institute is exerting considerable effort to the end that no municipality shall lack a moving picture house and theatre.

Particular mention must be made of the courses on Fascist culture in which competent lecturers explain to the young boys and girls the origins and development of Fascism. These courses, which are held even in the smaller centers, are a valuable means of developing the political conscience of the rising generation, and they help to popularize Fascism among the masses, since often the families of the pupils attend them also.

Of great importance are the art competitions which are organized every year among all the *Balilla* of Italian schools and which serve to

develop their artistic appreciation. Mention must also be made of the educational cruises systematically organized for both the young and older boys.

A variety of activities help to stimulate interest in the organization: contests for scholarships and prizes; free admission to academies of fine arts, musical conservatories and institutes of higher education; financial grants; honorable mention for acts of bravery, and for strength of character and of will power. Rituals, drills, hikes, sports, and badges are all used to appeal to the imagination and enthusiasm of the young people. These means are reinforced by a series of pamphlets containing addresses and exhortations which have been prepared to carry to the youth of the organizations the ideas about which their emotions are to be organized. In the universities, the Fascist clubs (*Gruppo Universitario Fascista*) combine the force of fraternities and athletic and literary clubs.

Important also is the religious work which is entrusted to the chaplains of the several legions. This work is not restricted to the teaching of the Christian dogma and the rites of the Church, but aims at promoting honesty and faith in God, and in the destinies of the Mother Country.

Vocational Guidance

Vocational education and guidance are among the most exacting tasks of the *Balilla* Institute and demand assiduous attention, a consistent program, and up-to-date educational views and methods. The provincial committees have established schools of vocational training, schools of arts and crafts, and evening technical classes. Members of the Institute are given preference in admission and enjoy special facilities and privileges even in schools that do not depend on the committees. No less than 205 courses in theoretical and practical agriculture have been instituted in the Venetian province and in Southern Italy. The part played by the *Avanguardisti* in the "*Battaglia del Grano*"¹ through the medium of these courses, is very significant; their contribution has proved most fertile of results.

¹National Wheat Campaign as a result of which Italy was able to produce practically enough wheat to care for the entire population.

On July 27, 1928, the Ministry of National Education turned over to the Institute the management of the non-classified schools and the schools for adults in Calabria and Sicily. On September 20, the Institute was entrusted also with the administration of these schools in Sardinia. These are now known as the Rural Schools of the National *Balilla* Institute. The number of these schools and their attendance were given in the section on illiteracy.

The Fascist Academy of Physical and Youth Education²

The Fascist Academy of Physical Education was founded by the *Balilla* Institute, by the Royal decree of November 20, 1927, No. 2341, for the training of officers for youth organizations and teachers of physical education for the secondary schools.

The Academy has the grade and organization of an institute of higher learning, and its work is based on the most modern educational principles. It aims at developing the moral, intellectual and physical aptitudes of the young people devoted to the profession of Fascist educators. It provides them with the general, scientific, technical and literary knowledge, and the practical training essential to their work with the young people in the ranks of the *Balilla* Institute. The officers of instruction are all specialists in their fields, and are for the most part professors of royal universities.

The Academy is situated at the Mussolini Forum in Rome. It is housed in a modern building which rises on the left bank of the Tiber, a little down stream from the historic Milvio Bridge, in the center of extensive athletic grounds covering an area of 350,000 square meters. It combines architectural beauty with magnificent surroundings and is equipped with all modern facilities. It has spacious dormitories and classrooms, a library, a museum, an auditorium, scientific laboratories, large meeting halls for students, teachers and officers. There is also a gymnasium 600 meters square, with spacious accommodations for spectators, an auxiliary gymnasium, and halls for fencing, boxing and wrestling.

The Academy also has a monumental marble stadium for interna-

²See *The Universities of Italy* by the Fascist University Groups, pp. 375-380.

tional matches, with accommodations for 20,000 persons. The forum has a stadium accommodating 100,000 persons; various fields for football and Rugby; courses for running, jumping, etc.; tennis and basketball courts; open-air theatres; two swimming pools; an open-air pool and an inside pool with an artificial beach; a riding school with adjoining stables; a range for shooting; and a motor course. These various buildings and fields are suitably separated one from the other by shady parks and gardens, traversed by wide avenues. On the right bank of the Tiber, sheds for boats and a spacious landing stage have been erected facing the main entrance to the Forum. In the center of the Forum stands an obelisk dedicated to Mussolini.

The library and the scientific laboratories of anatomy, physiology, radiology, anthropometry, physical therapeutics, psychology, and chemistry, equipped with ample material for study, provide a complete and interesting experimental field for the young students who receive a well-rounded training through the harmonious alternation of study, lectures, practical exercises, gymnastics, and sports.

Students who wish to be admitted to the Academy are required to pass a public competitive examination. The requirements for admission to these examinations are as follows: 1) graduation from a lyceum, or from some other higher secondary school, or possession of an equivalent education; 2) candidates must not be over twenty-four years of age; 3) they must be physically well-developed and have the other necessary qualifications for work in physical education; 4) they must be unmarried; 5) they must never have been expelled from government schools or institutes; 6) they must belong to the National Fascist Party or to the *Fasci Giovanili di Combattimento* or to the *Balilla* Institute. The final selection of the candidates is based on 1) information concerning the moral and political character of the candidate and his family; 2) a medical examination at the headquarters of the Academy; 3) a written examination on subjects of contemporary politics.

The course of study at the Academy covers three years; the first two years include general studies and training, and the last year is devoted to practical apprenticeship. The following subjects are studied during the first two years: normal human anatomy, corporal measurements, the growth of the human body, abnormalities in growth, physiology, psychology, hygiene, traumatology, kinematics, anthropometry, physical therapeutics, philosophy, the science of education, French,

English, practical and theoretical physical education, the history of physical education, Fascist legislation, apprenticeship, applied art, singing, and military technique.

Instruction in physical education is so regulated as to give the prospective leader an understanding of the harmonious development of the entire body, which in turn brings about the most advantageous equilibrium for intellectual development. It deals with theoretical and practical ideas in the principal branches of gymnastics, i.e., school gymnastics, preliminary athletics, light athletics and games, and in the various special exercises, such as, wrestling, rowing, tennis, football, swimming, fencing, boxing, skiing and skating. To instruction in these subjects are added lectures on methodology and practice in giving orders.

At the same time the student pursues studies concerning the structure of the human body and its functions from general morphology to neurology, with special reference to that morphological and functional aspect which is in closest relation to muscular exercise. Courses on the physiology of movements include a detailed analysis of every exercise in general gymnastics and the principal muscular movements in relation to human activity. These courses are illustrated by cinema projections.

The course on Fascist legislation aims at giving the students accurate and clear knowledge of the spirit of the reforms which Fascism has introduced into Italian legislation. This course is of particular value to the students since they must later fulfill a duty which is political and pedagogic.

Careful attention is given to the moral training of the students. The regulations prescribe that they must possess the Fascist spirit and temperament: enthusiasm, courage, decision, the spirit of self-denial, unselfishness, "and an unfaltering faith in Fascism and in the Duce who animates it with his genius."

Upon the completion of the two-year theoretical course, students enter upon a period of apprenticeship, one year in duration, which is the most important and the most significant part of their training. They receive instruction in directing youth organizations, in dealing with young crowds; they acquire experience in the work of the local and central offices of the *Balilla* Institute; and they also direct camps, cruises, and courses for the training of graduates. With the object of adding to the cultural preparation of the students, the Academy

organizes annually tours and courses of instruction in Italy and abroad.

Having successfully completed the year of apprenticeship, the student is received into the service of the *Balilla* Institute, and is appointed an officer of the Voluntary Militia for National Security connected with the cadres of the *Balilla* Institute.

Between 1929 and 1934 the Academy awarded diplomas to about 350 young men who are already doing excellent work as teachers and directors of *Balilla* organizations in the various provinces. They hold positions as committee presidents, secretaries, headmasters of rural schools, gymnastic and sports leaders, administrators, instructors and commanders of youth legions, directors of courses for graduates and of camps. In 1934, there were about 500 young men attending courses at the Academy.

The constitution of the Academy, approved by the Higher Council of Education in October 1929, provides for the institution of a two-year advanced course, open to those who have satisfactorily completed the first two years, and who have graduated in medicine and wish to specialize in physical education. Students who complete the full four-year course receive the degree of doctor of physical education.

The following courses are prescribed for those who wish to prepare themselves for this degree: general embryology and organo-genetic morphology of the human body; the physiology of childhood and growth; the pathology of growth; biological and physical chemistry; educational psychology; demographic legislation and statistics; practical courses in the physical education of the young; the hygiene of development; school hygiene; child culture; human biometry; social medicine and eugenics; applied radiology; and special sports.

The Women Fascists' Academy of Physical and Youth Education³

The Women Fascists' Academy of Physical and Youth Education, situated in Orvieto, a small town near Terni, has the same function as the Fascist Academy in Rome, by virtue of the powers granted to

³See *The Universities of Italy* by the Fascist University Groups, pp. 381-382.

the *Balilla* Institute by the Royal decree of November 20, 1927, No. 2341. It has the grade and organization of an institute of higher learning, and its purpose is to prepare the leaders of Italian girls' organizations and the teachers of physical education in secondary schools.

The spirit of Orvieto, a silent Umbrian town, is perfectly adapted to this type of school, the fundamental purpose of which is to give a complete feminine and Fascist education to young ladies. The Academy is provided with fine buildings, equipped with every modern convenience.

The requirements for admission are very similar to those of the Fascist Academy in Rome. Applicants must be between seventeen and twenty-one years of age, and unmarried; they must be members of the National Fascist Party, the *Balilla* Institute or of other young Fascist movements; they must be of good moral and political standing; and they must possess a certificate of graduation from an Italian higher secondary school.

The course of study covers two years, and upon its satisfactory completion students receive qualifying certificates in physical and youth education. A period of practical apprenticeship is also required, after which students are entered on the permanent staff of the *Balilla* Institute.

The course of study, entrusted to specialized professors, includes the following subjects: general theory and methodology of physical education, the technique of organization, educational gymnastics, strengthening and developing physical exercises, preliminary sport exercises and such out-door sports as basketball, swimming, tennis, ice-skating, and skiing. Courses in the following subjects are also given: anatomy, physical anthropology and eugenics, hygiene, the care of children, first aid, pedagogy, Fascist culture, English and French.

The Academy has already awarded diplomas to over 100 pupils who are now engaged as teachers in the girls' divisions of the *Balilla* Institute. The student enrolment of the Academy in 1934 was 200. Thus woman directors are being prepared who possess adequate technical, pedagogical, and scientific preparation for the important educational and political mission entrusted to them. The training received at the Academy is in harmony with the aims of the régime—namely, to give women greater physical vigor without detracting from the body its grace and elegance, and to infuse the consciousness of the exalted mission which they are called upon to fulfill as wives and mothers.

Military Instruction

According to recent regulations which went into effect in the school year 1935-36, military instruction is imparted in all the schools of the Kingdom. These courses are divided into three stages, taught respectively in the primary and secondary schools, and in the universities.

The aim of the courses in the first grade is to give boys an elementary knowledge of the organization of the armed forces of the State. The instruction includes a general survey of the army, navy, and air forces as a whole, a more detailed study of each individual unit, map-reading, and the more significant episodes of the World War.

In the second-degree courses, which stretch over a period of two years, the organization of the armed forces is taught in greater detail. Emphasis is laid on the Fascist philosophy of the mission of the army in the life of the nation. These courses are planned especially for boys who later in life intend to become subalterns in the army.

The third-degree courses deal with intellectual speculation rather than with material facts. According to the official program, the courses include such topics as "the essence of war as a political and social phenomenon," "the concept of integral war," "the preparation of the nation for war," etc. These courses are especially intended for men who are later to form part of the directing class of the nation in the political as well as the military field.

All these courses are compulsory and no student may expect to receive a school certificate or diploma unless he has attended them with profit. The courses are conducted by army officers and comprise twenty hours in each scholastic year.

School Camps

School camps, which were originally few in number, and for sick and delicate children only, are now being established everywhere in Italy. Their number and importance increase every year through the efforts of special associations and committees, and the municipalities. Whereas formerly only a few thousand children could enjoy a summer vacation, now hundreds of thousands of pupils are sent every year to sea and mountain resorts, under the supervision of teachers and

doctors. All children whose families are too poor to send them to a vacation resort are taken care of in these camps. Permanent camps open the year round, are being founded for sick children, and for children predisposed to disease.

Other Educational Organizations

The After-School Institute

For the many families who have neither the means nor the facilities for providing proper care for the children after school hours, the *Doposcuola*, or After-School Institute, fills a great need. It supplies a suitable environment for the children during the afternoon hours and guides and aids them in the preparation of their home work.

Recreation Centers

Recreation centers have been widely established throughout the country. Their task is to entertain and educate children by means of festivals, moving pictures, lectures, readings, and instructive walks.

School Associations

Every municipality of Italy has a School Association, whose duty it is to see that the schools and the pupils are provided with all necessary equipment for their work. The associations have established cooperative agencies through which all pupils may obtain school supplies at reduced prices. For the children of the very poor school equipment, clothing, shoes, and lunches are provided free of charge. Many of the associations supply moving picture machines and films for the schools, and some of them maintain kindergartens in their municipalities. In some parts of Italy, for example, in Venetia and in the province of Frosinone, the associations have formed federations in order to carry out their work more efficiently.

School associations were established by law in all municipalities of Italy in 1911; but in most communities they failed to function properly, owing to lack of financial support. Under the Fascist régime they have been revitalized and have become an important factor in the educational system.

School and Public Libraries

A law providing for the establishment of school and public libraries throughout Italy was passed on September 2, 1917. The organization of these libraries proceeded slowly however, because of the limitation of the budget of the Ministry of Education.

In April 1926, the Minister issued a circular urging local authorities to promote the establishment of libraries, especially in small rural centers. The results of this appeal have been gratifying. Through the initiative of teachers, private citizens, municipalities, and school associations more than 15,000 free libraries, containing over 2,000,000 volumes have been established in 7,424 municipalities. At the present time it is a rare exception to find a school without a library. Most of the libraries are under the supervision of men or women connected with the school system, for it is believed that the teacher is better fitted than any one else to judge the intellectual needs of pupils and to direct and advise other readers as well.

The Junior Red Cross Society

The chief task of the Junior Red Cross Society is to hold classes for children in hygiene and public health. It also maintains school medical services in a number of communities at a cost of more than 700,000 lire a year and operates about fifty summer camps.

It has established a system of correspondence among local Junior Red Cross units and Junior Red Cross units in twenty-five foreign countries, in which are exchanged letters, photographs, postal cards, and drawings and other work of the pupils.

More than 50,000 elementary school classes, and 25,000 individual children are enrolled in the Junior Red Cross Society.

National Leisure Time Institute (Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro).

The National Leisure Time Institute, or the *Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro*, has as its object the promotion of plans for the better use of leisure time by workers of all classes. In accordance with the Fascist policy of enhancing national values, it aims at raising the intellectual, moral, physical, and social status of all classes of Italian society. So extensive and important has its work become under the auspices of the General Secretary of the National Fascist Party,

especially in recent years, that it is regarded as one of the outstanding achievements of the Fascist Revolution.

In Italy the movement for the more profitable use of leisure time passed through three different phases before arriving at its present organization. In the first, which covers the period from the initiation of the movement in 1919 to the end of 1923, the work was carried out through private initiative; in the second, from 1924 to 1929, it was affiliated with the National Confederation of Fascist Syndicates; and in the third and final phase, which began in September 1929, it came under the direct control of the National Government.

During its first phase of the movement the work was largely advisory. Employers were encouraged to introduce welfare measures among their workers and to provide educational and sports facilities for them. With the creation of the *Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro* by Act of Parliament of May 1, 1925, and the acceptance of its presidency by H. R. H. the Duke of Aosta, the movement took definite shape. Thousands of clubs, societies, sports organizations, and educational and art groups were federated under the auspices of the Institute.

The Secretary of the National Fascist Party, who became president of the Institute after the resignation of the Duke of Aosta, reorganized its entire administration and introduced a program more in harmony with the aims and methods of the National Fascist Party. The Institute was officially recognized as a Fascist institution on September 14, 1929.

It is interesting to examine the various types of work which the Institute is carrying out at present. It must be noted, in the first place, that the leisure time movement, as developed during recent years in Italy, has much in common with the welfare work which is carried out in Anglo-Saxon and other countries by large business organizations for the assistance and future security of their employees. In some respects, its work is similar to that of such organizations as the Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., the Playground and Recreation Association of America, the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, the National Education Association of the United Kingdom, the *Commission Centrale des Loisirs des Ouvriers de l'Hainault* of Belgium, and other foreign organizations and associations that promote libraries, adult education, after-work sports, popular tours, etc. But the Italian movement has features of its own which differentiates it from similar organizations. The Leisure Time Institute in Italy is a public in-

stitution which, because of its technical and administrative functions, is able to deal directly with the problems of the welfare, education and recreation of the working classes. In all other countries—including those that have reached a high degree of material civilization—the general and physical education of the workers and the various forms of social welfare are left to private initiative, but in Italy, thanks to the enterprising spirit of Fascism, these tasks have become an integral part of the State's activities.

The carrying out of the vast leisure time program inevitably necessitates a complicated administrative and technical organization. At the head of the Institute is the Secretary of the National Fascist Party, who is at present represented by a Special Commissioner; immediately subordinate to him is the Central Board of Directors which acts as an executive body. The various sections of accounting, bookkeeping, preparation of balance sheets, coordination of internal services, registration, archives, distribution of membership cards and collection of dues, are entrusted to the administrative, secretarial and registration departments. There are also technical departments whose work consists in the preparation of programs for the different branches of the Institute's activities and in the conduct of work connected with education and organization. Technical commissions composed of specialists in different branches—sports, vocational instruction, philo-dramatic societies, music—assist the central administration and its subordinate offices in preparing and carrying out programs. There is also an Inspection Bureau which supervises the work of the provincial organizations.

Locally, the work of the Institute is organized along provincial lines. Each provincial section plans and administers leisure time activities within its jurisdiction; it arranges for competitions, lecture tours, athletic contests, and the distribution of membership cards and of educational material and films to the local Institute clubs and affiliated associations. The provincial offices of the Institute are presided over by the provincial secretaries of the National Fascist Party assisted by competent directors and technical commissions.

In each city or town the Institute has its local club house where the members meet to participate in such recreational, artistic and sport activities as the possibilities and specific requirements of the district permit.

The activities of the Institute are divided into four main divisions:

1) instruction (general education of the masses and the teaching of trades; 2) artistic education (dramatic societies, music, choral singing, cinematography, radio, and folklore;) 3) physical education (Italian Tourist Federation and Central Sports Commission); 4) social welfare and hygiene. The Institute carries out its educational work through the provision of libraries, reading rooms, evening and holiday classes, technical courses, illustrated lectures and university extension classes.

The first open-air moving picture theatres in Italy were established under its auspices. Its program of popular education has the approval and constant support of the Ministry of National Education. A measure has been passed providing that elementary and high school teachers who assist the Institute in its educational program will receive special credit, which will entitle them to preference in competitive examinations and in promotions.

The Institute is encouraging the revival of dramatic societies. Every possible means is employed to achieve this end: propaganda, theatrical schools, dramatic publications, artistic performances, the touring of "Cars of Thespis."

Fruitful and original work is also being done in sports. A large and increasing number of young men and women now participate in athletic activities and are being trained in gymnastics, fencing, swimming, rowing, cycling, running, etc.

The Italian Excursion Federation, by bringing together hundreds of sport, excursion and Alpine clubs, is promoting educational tours and Sunday games and excursions in which thousands of workers participate.

In 1927 the Leisure Time Institute, in collaboration with the *Ente Nazionale delle Piccole Industrie* (National Organization of Small Industries) organized an exhibition of economical housefurnishing. In 1928 they conducted throughout Italy two competitions in economical and rational furnishing of the home.

The Institute also concerns itself with hygienic conditions and general standards of living among the working classes. It encourages the construction of hygienic dwelling houses, the planting of flower and kitchen gardens, the operation of factory restaurants, and stores for the sale of food-stuffs, the establishment of small-loan banks, and the preparation and distribution of literature dealing with tuberculosis, cancer, alcoholism, and malaria.

The progress of the Leisure Time Institute may be realized from the following statistics: In 1926 it controlled 1,497 organizations with a total membership of 280,584; in 1934, the number of organizations controlled by it was 20,322, and there were more than two million members, classified as follows: 759,302 engaged in industry, 211,647 in commerce and banking, 460,022 in agriculture, 93,174 in transportation, and 584,082 in miscellaneous trades and professions. The following table summarizes the growth of the activities of the Institute from 1928 to 1934:

Federated Organizations and Number of Persons Engaging in Activities

	1928	1930	1931	1932	1934
Federated organizations	7,254	14,427	16,192	17,809	20,322
Physical education sports	13,257	78,993	89,623	156,022	—
Physical education—excursions	11,379	36,483	53,243	53,370	257,259
Art education—Music, Cinema, Radio	3,680	262,706	331,254	471,735	897,867
Art education—Dramatics	2,565	13,771	13,733	15,390	15,589
Popular Culture and Folklore	12,670	39,814	27,791	29,970	52,236
Vocational Instruction	3,824	39,960	43,031	32,351	39,756
Assistance	5,331	53,390 ^a	143,027 ^a	187,335 ^a	168,474 ^a
Total	52,876	525,117	701,702	946,173	1,431,181

Satisfactory results have been obtained within so short a time mainly because the officers of the Institute have constantly applied the fundamental principle of Fascist education, viz., all work must have a purpose, method, and order. Before the advent of Fascism, Italians spoke incessantly of social reforms; everyone posed as the apostle of the workers' redemption, but everything ended in words and nothing practical was ever accomplished. At the present time, little is said, but much is done. Improved organization, better equipment, extension of activities, and increased membership are all signs of the vitalizing effect of this leisure time program which Fascism ranks among its major achievements.

^a Including medical assistance, medical consultations, lectures, etc.

CHAPTER VIII

UNIVERSITY AND HIGHER EDUCATION

History of Italian Universities

The universities of Italy represent great academic origins—most of them were established before the American Revolution. The history of no less than nine of them may be traced to the thirteenth century. Some historians, among them Savigny, hold that medieval universities arose spontaneously "wherever the fame of a teacher gathered about him many pupils." Others are of the opinion that universities are the outgrowths or metamorphoses of bishop, convent, and lay schools found in Italy during the late Middle Ages. According to the latter viewpoint, their history embodies educational foundations laid by municipalities, and also represent civic support given by citizens. Some of the universities owe their existence to the fact that until the formation of the Kingdom of Italy in 1861, the territory now occupied by it consisted of separate and often antagonistic political units, some of them governed by foreign nations, and all of them still tenacious of their traditions and prestige.

Though their origin is obscure, medieval universities made significant contributions to the history of civilization. They were indeed the torch bearers during the dark ages; they represented the centers of culture, and their influence and prestige reached the remote corners of the world.

The oldest universities originated as follows:

Bologna.—One of the oldest in Europe. It had its origin early in the tenth century as a school of grammar and rhetoric. It is said that about the thirteenth century it had about 10,000 pupils.

Cagliari.—Established by the brief of Paul V, dated February 12, 1606, and opened in 1622.

Catania.—Founded by Alfonso of Aragona by the sovereign concession of October 21, 1434, and by Pope Eugene IV by the Bull of April 18, 1444. Inaugurated on October 18, 1445.

Florence.—The present university, established by the law of September 30, 1923, is an outgrowth of the *Studio* founded by the Florentine Republic in 1321.

Genoa.—A *Universitas Studiorum* was established in 1773. Before this date, a Bull of Pope Sixtus IV in 1471, and a diploma of Emperor Maximilian I in 1496, granted the municipality of Genoa the right to confer degrees and academic titles.

Macerata.—Established by Pope Paul III by the Bull of July 1, 1540.

Messina.—Founded by Pope Paul III by the Bull of November 16, 1548 through the intercession of Ignazio of Loyola.

Modena.—From the twelfth to the fifteenth centuries Modena had a *Studio*, which in 1603 was reorganized as a university by a concession of Emperor Leopold I.

Naples.—Founded as a *Studium Generale* in 1224, by Frederick II of Sweden.

Padua.—Origin similar to that of Bologna. It seems that in or about 1220, a group of teachers and scholars went from Bologna and either founded a *Studio* at Padua, or expanded one which was already in existence.

Palermo.—The City of Palermo established the *Studio* of St. Dominick during the second half of the sixteenth century. Later, the teaching passed to the Jesuits and, in 1767, to the Senate of Palermo. In 1781, the King permitted the awarding of degrees in philosophy and theology, and by a special regulation of September 3, 1805, founded the University which was divided into four classes.

Parma.—Established as a School of Liberal Arts which flourished in Parma about the eleventh century.

Pavia.—Established by the law promulgated in May, 825, by King Lotario on the fields of Corteolona. The earliest positive document on the foundation of the *Studium Generale* is the charter of Emperor Charles dated April 13, 1361.

Perugia.—The *Studio* established in Perugia as early as 1200 was recognized in 1308 as a *Studium Generale* by the Bull of Clement V.

Pisa.—Established in the twelfth century in the same manner as the

university of Bologna, with corporative characteristics. It was recognized as a *Studium Generale* in the year 1343.

Rome.—The University of Rome originated from the *Schola Palatina* or *Studium Curiae* founded by Pope Onorio III in 1200, and from the *Studium Urbis* established by Pope Boniface VIII by the Bull of April 20, 1303.

Rome, contrary to Bologna and Paris, was prevented from taking the lead among the medieval universities because of the tumultuous periods through which it passed from the fall of the Roman Empire to the time it became the capital of United Italy in 1871. Schools did exist in Rome and in time became very numerous, but the great majority of them were religious schools and seminaries maintained by different nations for students of each nationality. In 1870, during the pontificate of Pius IX, the University had less than 700 students, but this number was not then exceeded by most of the universities in Europe. Rome certainly never boasted such an army of students as did Bologna, which in its most glorious days in the Middle Ages had from 15,000 to 20,000 students.

In 1932 the Italian Chamber approved a bill by which the University of Rome, hitherto established in the center of the city, known for centuries as "Sapienza," was removed outside *Porta Pia* on extensive grounds of more than 150,000 square yards, for which provision was made two years before by a decree of Mussolini. Many of the buildings which are to house the various faculties and institutes have been completed.

Sassari.—Founded as a college by the Jesuit Fathers in the sixteenth century; established as a university on February 9, 1617, by the charter of Philip III.

Siena.—Originated from the study of laws and briefs. Famous in the twelfth century. It was recognized as a university by the charter of Charles IV in 1357.

Turin.—Established in 1365 by the charter of Emperor Charles IV. A Bull of the Antipope Benedict XIII in 1404, a charter of Emperor Sigismondo XXIII in 1412, and a Bull in the following year by Pope John XXIII were issued on the establishment of the University.

In the Middle Ages there were two fundamental types of universities. The *General Study* founded by Frederick II at Naples to rival the institution at Bologna had many features of a state school.

The King appointed the rector and the teachers; the state provided for the maintenance of the school and prescribed its organization. All the other universities were corporative institutions, that is, they were founded and grew as private corporations of teachers and students. They enjoyed an autonomous existence and modelled their organization after the constitutions of the municipalities. Thus from the earliest times Italy had the two typical forms of institutions of higher learning: the state university of Naples and the private University of Bologna. Later, with the establishment of the *Signorie* and of the modern states, the second type of university gradually disappeared, while the prestige of the state university increased. It is important to note in this connection that Napoleon's inspiration for his Imperial University, which included schools of every grade—elementary, secondary, and university—and which constituted the so-called "university monopoly" by which all schools became an instrument of the State, was derived from the educational system of Piedmont under Victor Amedeo II, who, through his "magistrate of reform," made all schools dependent on the university.

University Organization from 1859 to 1923

The Casati law of November 13, 1859, regulated all branches of education: elementary, secondary, and university or higher. The regulations dealing with higher education were contained in Chapter II, articles 47-187. Since this law was enacted when Lombardy was annexed to the other states of Sardinia, it affected only the Universities of Turin, Pavia, Genoa, Cagliari, and Sassari. It was applied to the other universities of Italy as the annexations gradually took place. Thus the decree-law of October 17, 1866, (Mordini-Ugdulena), extended the Casati law to the universities of Sicily: Catania, Messina, and Palermo; and the law of May 12, 1872, no. 821, extended it to the universities of Rome and Padua. From 1861 to 1875 the University of Naples was governed by the Imbriani decree-law of February 16, 1861; it was finally placed under the Casati system by the law of May 30, 1875.

Even after the political unification of the country, the following universities were still unaffected by the Casati law:

a) The Tuscan universities of Pisa and Siena which were governed by the legislative decree of July 31, 1859 (Boncompagni-Ridolfi).

b) The University of Bologna which was administered by the Pontifical Bull "Quo Divina Sapientia" of August 28, 1824, and by the dictatorial decrees of January, February and March 1866.

c) The University of Macerata which was governed by the above mentioned Pontifical Bull.

d) The four private universities (Ferrara, Camerino, Perugia, and Urbino) which were administered by special legislative measures.

Numerous plans and projects on higher education were presented and discussed in Parliament after 1860. The most important of these were presented by Matteucci (1861), Berti (1866), Sella-Correnti (1872), Scialoja (1872-1873), Coppino (1877-1879-1886), De Sanctis (1880), Baccelli (1881-1884-1894), Gianturco (1897), Gallo (1898), Cremona (1898), Rava (1909). Despite these discussions, and despite studies made by eminent educators and by specially appointed government commissions, universities continued to be governed by the Casati law until 1910, when the Royal decree of August 9, 1910, no. 795, approved the Consolidated Laws on Higher Education which made uniform and consolidated all existing regulations on the subject.

The Royal decree of January 30, 1910, No. 84, appointed a Royal Commission on the reorganization of higher education. The report of this Commission, signed by Edoardo Daneo, Minister of Public Instruction from December 12, 1909 to March 31, 1910, and again from March 21 to November 5, 1914, was submitted to His Majesty the King. In stressing the importance of education, the report pointed out that the Government had already taken measures for the improvement of the legal status and the salaries of all teachers and professors.

Italian educators felt that the progress of science and the spread of culture gave higher education an important and preeminent function. Higher education marked the culmination of the educational system of a nation. It was the duty of the university not only to be the custodian and promoter of science, but also to serve as the stimulus and controlling force of all the intellectual and moral forces of the country. For this reason, it was thought that a mere formal reorganization of higher education would be vain and fruitless. An external reform would not carry with it the dynamic force of a vigorous and lasting organic change. If only this were done, the result would be a disturbance, not a reformation of the system.

The Commission undertook to reevaluate the content and scope of higher studies; to determine whether the needs of modern science called for a more homogeneous grouping of the various subjects of study; to examine which subjects were best fitted to fix in the minds of students a firm *directio mentis* so as to give them vigor in their method of study of entire groups of other special sciences; to study whether the aim of university teaching should be primarily scientific or professional, and how to reconcile these two exigencies with each other; and finally, to propose ways and means by which Italian universities might be strengthened so as to give greater impulse to those ideals which had already contributed so much to the creation of a national conscience. These were some of the more important questions which presented themselves to the Commission, but there were others no less worthy of study: the administrative organization of the universities; the private universities; the organization of the private docentships in their relation to the official professorships; the disciplinary organization. All of these problems were seriously studied, and legislation was formulated to remedy existing defects. Ministers Matteucci, Berti, Correnti, Scialoja, De Sanctis, and Baccelli had dealt with these matters, but they had made no drastic changes.

The Commission was composed of men of undisputed merit in special branches of studies, and of eminent scholars of recognized ability in the various fields of pedagogy and education. Its membership was limited to twenty-five and included representatives of the several faculties of the principal universities of the Kingdom.

The decree, dated Rome, January 30, 1910, which appointed the Commission, read as follows:

"Article 1—A Commission shall be appointed whose duty shall be to prepare and formulate suitable proposals to be embodied in a bill on the reorganization of higher education, in its professional, scientific, disciplinary, and administrative aspects.

"Article 2—The Commission shall be presided over by the Vice-President of the Higher Council of Public Instruction, Professor Ulisse Dini, Senator of the Kingdom, and shall be composed of the following men: Guido Baccelli, Leonardo Bianchi, Paolo Boselli, Lorenzo Brunasco, Lorenzo Camerano, Giampietro Chironi, Giuseppe Colombo, Luigi Credaro, Pasquale Del Giudice, Isidoro Del Lungo, Francesco Durante, Pasquale Del Pozzo, Guido Fusinato, Michele Kerbaker, Gennaro Manna, Edoardo Maragliano, Vincenzo Masi, Luigi Pigo-

rini, Arnaldo Piutti, Vittorio Polacco, Francesco Lorenzo Pulle, Salvatore Riccobono, Alberto Tonelli, Andrea Torre.

"In order to carry out its work, the Commission may divide itself into committees, each appointing its own chairman."

All the members of the Commission accepted the appointment except Senator Del Lungo, who was replaced by Alfredo Galletti. Professor Michele Kerbaker resigned for reasons of health, and Luigi Ceci was appointed in his place. Finally, Alberto Tonelli resigned during the sessions of the Commission, and Antonio Roiti was appointed in his place.

Later, in March, 1913, toward the end of the work of the Commission, Professor Leonardo Bianchi resigned, but no one was appointed to replace him.

The Royal Commission completed its work in eight sessions, held from October, 1910 to February, 1914. In all, fifty plenary meetings were held. The following subcommittees were appointed:

1. Subcommittee for the study of educational organization.
2. Subcommittee for the study of administrative organization.
3. Subcommittee for the organization of the faculty of jurisprudence.
4. Subcommittee for the organization of the faculty of medicine and surgery.
5. Subcommittee for the organization of the faculty of sciences, and the applied schools of engineering, pharmacy, and veterinary medicine.
6. Subcommittee for the organization of the faculty of philosophy and letters.
7. Subcommittee for the coordination of the institutions of higher learning of Tuscany.
8. Subcommittee for the coordination and definitive editing of the projects proposed.

But even the work of this Commission failed to yield the desired results.¹ In fact, it may be said that the Casati system remained in force until the promulgation for the Royal decree of September 30, 1923, No. 2102 (the Gentile Law).

¹See Appendix F for *Draft of the proposals made by the Royal Commission to serve as a guide in the compilation of a bill for the reform of higher education.*

In accordance with the organization provided for by the Casati law, the royal universities, from the legal, administrative, and patrimonial points of view, were real "organs of administration directed by the State." The State provided for everything, with the result that this excessive centralization stifled every initiative on the part of universities. The same was true of the principles underlying the educational administration which the State planned and imposed on all universities alike. This offers an explanation for the uniformity of all institutions. It is scarcely necessary to point out that the rigidity of this system not only did not meet scientific and cultural requirements, but even hindered their progress. The result was a crisis in the field of higher education—a crisis which year by year became increasingly worse.

It is small wonder then that Italian universities assumed a secondary rank. A grave defect of the system was the absence of educational liberty, which was most evident in the organization of studies. The laws, regulations and circulars fixing uniformly for all universities the compulsory subjects, examinations, hours, and in fact everything that could and could not be done, brought about what was called the bureaucratization of education. Professors and educational administrators were under iron-bound rules and regulations to such degree that the arteries of the system of public education became petrified. The university had come to mean nothing more than the place where professors went to impart the instruction for which they were being paid, and where students came to attend such classes as they needed in order to pass the examinations for one of the higher degrees which would entitle them to practice the corresponding profession.

Another and perhaps even more important reason why Italian universities lost their former prestige was to be found in the excessive number of institutions of higher learning. There were too many universities and students, and the admission requirements were too easy. The actual number of universities in Italy, as in some other European countries, still far exceeds the needs of the kingdom. In all the universities and higher institutes in Italy there are about 54,000 students, or 1.3 per thousand population, as compared with the proportion of five per thousand inhabitants in the United States. Considering the comparative areas of the United States and Italy, it will be seen at once that from a geographical point of view Italy has more universities

than she requires. The excess is principally in northern Italy and in the islands of Sicily and Sardinia. Within a radius of less than one hundred miles from Bologna there are seven universities: Siena, Florence, Pisa, Padua, Parma, Modena, and Ferrara. Each has a long history of its own, which together with a strong sectional spirit makes it extremely difficult even to consider publicly a greater centralization to be accomplished by a reduction in the number of universities. It must be remembered, however, that within the states of Pennsylvania and New York alone there are fifteen approved medical schools in contrast to the twenty-one medical faculties in all of Italy. Prior to the unification of Italy, when the country was still divided into small kingdoms and principalities, the existence of a university for each state was justified, especially for political reasons. But at the present time, these political and social reasons have disappeared and modern facilities of communication have eliminated the necessity for local universities. Besides, the Nationalist maintains that the mixing of the various elements of the population improves the national unity of the country. The concentration of scientific centers would not only strengthen the financial resources of the surviving universities, but would eventually attract more attention from the rest of the world; and these great centers of study would thus be placed in contact with the scientific students of foreign countries and closer international intellectual relations would be promoted.

Present Classification of Universities and Higher Institutes

Institutions of higher learning are classified as follows:

I. The Royal and Private Universities.

1. The royal universities of Bari, Bologna, Cagliari, Catania, Florence, Genoa, Macerata, Messina, Milan, Modena, Naples, Padua, Palermo, Parma, Pavia, Perugia, Pisa, Rome, Sassari, Siena, and Turin.

2. The private universities of Camerino, Ferrara, Milan (Catholic University of the Sacred Heart), Urbino, and the Higher Institute Cesare Alfieri of Florence.

II. The Royal and Private Higher Institutes.

1. The royal schools of engineering of Bologna, Genoa (Naval School), Milan, Naples, Padua, Palermo, Pisa, Rome, Turin, and the

School of Industrial Chemistry of Bologna, classified as an engineering school.

2. The royal higher schools of architecture of Rome, Florence, Naples, Turin, and Venice.

3. The royal higher agricultural institutes of Bologna, Florence, Milan, Perugia, Pisa, and Portici.

4. The royal higher institutes of veterinary medicine of Bologna, Messina, Milan, Naples, Parma, Perugia, Pisa, Sassari (established by the Royal decree of January 12, 1928, No. 116), and Turin.

5. The royal higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences of Bari, Catania, Florence, Genoa, Naples, Rome, Turin, Trieste, and Venice.

6. The private higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences of Bologna (established by the Royal decree-law of October 10, 1929, No. 1859), Milan (University Bocconi), and Palermo.

7. The Post-Graduate School of Foreign Commerce of Brescia.

Until 1926-27, the higher institutes referred to above in numbers 3 to 7 were still under the control of the Ministry of National Economy, but in 1928 they were placed under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of National Education.

III. The Royal and Standardized Higher Normal Institutes.

1. The royal higher normal institutes of Florence, Messina, and Rome.

2. The standardized higher normal institutes of Milan (Mary Immaculate), Naples (Sister Orsola Benincasa), and Turin.

IV. The Higher Institutes Having Special Aims and Organization.

a) The following are at present under the Ministry of National Education: the Royal Oriental Institute of Naples, the Royal Higher Naval Institute of Naples, the Royal Higher Normal School of Pisa, the Royal Fascist Academy of Physical Education and of Education of the Youth of Rome, and the Royal University for Foreigners of Perugia.

b) The following are dependent on other ministries: the Royal Higher Schools of Paleography of Bologna, Genoa, Milan, Naples, Palermo, Rome, Turin, Venice (dependent on the Ministry of the Interior); the Royal Higher Police School of Rome (dependent on

the Ministry of the Interior); the Royal Higher School of Malariology (dependent on the Ministry of the Interior); the Royal Higher School of Telegraphy and Telephony (dependent on the Ministry of Communications).

V. The Higher Institutes and Schools of Fine Arts:

Bologna (Academy of Fine Arts); Carrara (Marble School); Florence (Academy of Fine Arts, Conservatory of Music); Milan (Academy of Fine Arts, Conservatory of Music); Naples (Academy of Fine Arts, Conservatory of Music); Palermo (Academy of Fine Arts, Conservatory of Music); Parma (Conservatory of Music); Rome (Academy of Fine Arts, Conservatory of Music); Turin (Academy of Fine Arts); Venice (Academy of Fine Arts).

These institutions are under the control of the Department of Antiquities and Fine Arts of the Ministry of National Education, and have a special organization. Some are of high school grade, others of university grade.

VI. The Higher Military Schools.

Caserta (Aeronautical Academy); Civitavecchia (Central School of Infantry, Artillery, and Engineering); Florence (Central School of Royal Carabinieri (police), School of Applied Military Hygiene); Leghorn (Naval Academy, Institute of Maritime War); Modena (Academy of Infantry and Cavalry); Turin (Academy of Artillery and Engineering, Applied School of Artillery and Engineering, War School).

The above institutions have special characteristics and aims, and are classed as higher institutes. They depend on the ministries of war, navy, and aeronautics.

The preparatory engineering courses may be taken at the academies of Caserta, Leghorn, and Turin; the first year of applied engineering studies may be taken at the academies of Leghorn and Caserta.

VII. The Ecclesiastical Institutions.

The higher studies in theology, philosophy, and jurisprudence annexed to the Pontifical Seminary of Rome; the Gregorian Pontifical University; the International Pontifical "Angelico" College of Theology of the Dominican Fathers; the International Pontifical St. Anselmo College of Dogma or of the Benedictine Fathers; the Urbano Athe-

neum of *Propaganda Fide*; the Biblical Institute; the Oriental Institute—all of which are located in Rome. The Pontifical Juridical Faculty connected with the Patriarchal Seminary of Venice; the Sections of Dogmatic Theology connected with the seminaries of Benevento, Naples, Milan, Turin; the Sections of Dogmatic Theology connected with the regional seminaries of Anagni, Assisi, Bologna, Catanzaro, Chieti, Cagliari, Fano, Molfetta, Naples (Posillipo), Ferrara, Florence, Genoa, Modena, Padua, Palermo, Parma, Piacenza, Pisa, and Siena.

The Sacred Congregation College of the Vatican classes the above institutions among the higher institutions of learning. The higher ecclesiastical institutions were completely reorganized by the Apostolic Constitution "Deus Scientiarum Dominus" of May 24, 1931.

General Characteristics of the Fascist University Reforms

After completing the reform of elementary and secondary education Minister Gentile undertook to reform higher education. Thus for the first time since the Casati law of 1859, the entire educational system was completely overhauled. As such, the decree of September 30, 1923, No. 2102, concerning the university reform, constitutes a milestone in the history of higher education in Italy. The original law has been modified here and there by later measures, which in no way affect the true spirit of the Gentile reform.

The new organization of higher education is grounded on the following fundamental principles:

1. Higher education is mainly scientific in character. According to Article 1 of the Gentile law, the object of higher education is to promote the progress of science and to impart the scientific education necessary for the exercise of the various professions.
2. Institutions of higher learning should enjoy administrative, educational, and disciplinary autonomy.
3. Students should enjoy ample freedom in their studies.
4. State license examinations should be established.

Universities are self-governing bodies and as such enjoy administrative autonomy. They possess legal personality; they receive adequate financial support; they are permitted to administer their funds freely; they enjoy educational autonomy in that each is free to determine the organization of its course of studies; each university

has the right to draw up its own constitution containing the regulations for its educational organization.

By virtue of the disciplinary autonomy which they enjoy, academic authorities exercise disciplinary powers over students as well as over the personnel of all categories, excepting professors. In the case of the latter, disciplinary powers are exercised by the Minister who acts in accordance with the findings of a Disciplinary Court appointed from among the members of the Higher Council.

Freedom of studies implies the right of students to plan their own program of studies according to their individual needs and desires. As a logical consequence of the educational autonomy and the freedom of studies, state license examinations have been established.

The degrees awarded by universities and other higher institutions serve only as academic qualifications. Anyone who desires to practice a profession must pass a special license examination, through which the State ascertains whether the graduates, in freely pursuing their studies in the various universities, have attained the necessary preparation for the practice of the professions.

The general university regulation was approved by the Royal decree of April 6, 1924, No. 674, and the regulation for the state examinations was approved by the Royal decree of September 16, 1926, No. 1768.

Centralization of All Educational Institutions Under the Ministry of National Education

The necessity of bringing all schools under the jurisdiction of the Ministry which supervises national culture had long since been pointed out by many educators. In fact, excepting for the military schools which must depend on the Ministries of War, Navy, and Aeronautics, there are no reasons for dividing all other schools between several ministries. Only in this way can the educational institutions of Italy have unity of direction. It is to the credit of the Fascist Government that it centralized under the Ministry of National Education all institutions of instruction and education.

The Royal decree law of June 17, 1928, No. 1814, placed under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction all institutes and schools which had formerly depended upon the Ministry of National

Economy—that is, all the higher institutes of agriculture, veterinary medicine, and commerce.

The law of July 8, 1929, No. 1222, brought under the direction of the same ministry all nautical institutes of every grade and order, including the Higher Naval Institute of Naples. Finally, the Royal decree of September 12, 1929, No. 1661, which changed the name of the Ministry of Public Instruction to that of the Ministry of National Education, also placed the schools and institutes of physical and youth education, including the Fascist Academy of Physical and Youth Education, under the same ministry. As a result of these measures, the Ministry of National Education has had to enact numerous laws and regulations for the various types of higher institutes of education which have been placed under its direction and control.²

General Organization of Universities and Higher Institutes

The chief effect of the Gentile reform, as already pointed out, is that the State undertook to support only such schools, libraries, and clinics as were deemed necessary for the State. Others were not suppressed but were allowed to shift for themselves. It was with the intent to reduce the number of existing universities and higher institutes that the Government in 1923 attempted to classify these institutions into three categories:

1. *Universities and higher institutes of Category A* annexed to the law of September 30, 1923. These are wholly supported by the Italian Government, except for a few private grants or small subsidies for specific purposes established by private persons in connection with these universities. The tendency is for local governments to be relatively much less sympathetic to the needs of universities of this category since their financial status is guaranteed by the Central Government.

The following institutions come under Category A:—

²To form an idea of the vast and complex problem of legislation on higher education see: "Raccolta delle leggi, dei decreti, dei regolamenti e delle circolari sull'Istruzione Superiore." Istituto Poligrafico dello Stato, Roma, 1930; and the "Raccolta delle leggi, dei decreti, e dei regolamenti e delle circolari sulla istruzione superiore dall'anno 1930 al 1933." Istituto poligrafico dello Stato, Rome, 1934.

The royal universities of Bologna, Cagliari, Genoa, Naples, Padua, Palermo, Pavia, Pisa, Rome, Turin.

The schools of engineering of Bologna, Naples, Padua, Palermo, Pisa, Rome, and the schools of architecture of Rome, Florence, and Turin.

The higher institutes of agriculture of Bologna, Milan, Perugia, Pisa, Portici, Florence (agrarian and forest).

The higher institutes of veterinary medicine of Bologna, Messina, Milan, Naples, Parma, Pisa, Sassari, Turin.

2. The second class consists of *universities and higher institutes of Category B*, or subsidized institutions, which are supported in part by the Central Government, and in part by provincial or municipal contributions. Some of these universities and higher institutes are regarded by the government educational authorities as of doubtful value. Universities and higher institutes of Category B are included in Table B annexed to the Law of September 30, 1923, as follows:

The royal universities of Bari, Catania, Florence, Macerata, Messina, Milan, Modena, Parma, Perugia, Sassari, Siena.

The schools of engineering of Milan and Turin.

The School of Industrial Chemistry of Bologna.

The School of Naval Engineering of Genoa.

The Higher Institute of Veterinary Medicine of Perugia.

The higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences of Bari, Catania, Florence, Genoa, Naples, Rome, Turin, Triest "University of Economic and Commercial Studies," and Venice.

The position of the Central Government with respect to these universities is that they may be maintained and others may be opened, only if the municipalities or provinces or both are willing to bear the bulk of the expenses, assisted by a small government contribution.

3. *Private universities and higher institutes*, which are entirely supported from provincial, municipal or private sources. The universities are those of Camerino, Ferrara, Milan "Catholic University of the Sacred Heart," and Urbino. The Cesare Alfieri Institute of Social and Political Sciences of Florence is included in this Category.

The private higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences of Bologna, the Bocconi of Milan, and Palermo.

The higher normal schools and other special higher institutes will be discussed elsewhere.

There are wide variations within each of these groups with respect to number of students, prestige, equipment and standards of work. In general, the universities of Category A are far superior to those of Category B. However, some of the universities in Category B, such as Milan and Florence, are quite superior in equipment and quality of work to some of the universities of Category A, and are likely, in the future, to acquire even greater advantages.

The universities and institutes referred to in Categories A and B are royal. The official lists are final, so that no other higher institute may be created, nor may any of those already in existence be eliminated, except by law. However, the Minister of National Education, acting with the Minister of Finance, may combine higher institutes of agriculture with institutes of veterinary medicine located in the same city or in neighboring cities; he may also order the union of higher institutes of veterinary medicine with universities. These changes are effected through royal decrees which are promulgated on the recommendation of the Higher Council of National Education.

Private universities and institutes are created or eliminated by royal decree; their number is unlimited.

The universities and institutes of Category B have the same organization as those of Category A. The organization of private universities must conform with that of the royal universities.

The work of universities and higher institutes is governed by organic laws and general regulations. These apply to all institutes included in the three aforementioned categories. To supplement these general regulations each institute has the following special regulations:

a) A constitution containing all regulations concerning the organization of studies. In the case of private universities the constitution not only determines the educational aims and scope, but also prescribes the administrative organization and the work of the institution. The constitutions are prepared by the academic authorities and are approved by royal decree upon the advice of the Higher Council.

b) An internal code of regulations which contains all the rules on the administrative, accounting, and internal functions of the institution, as well as the salaries, leaves of absence, and legal status of the personnel. In the case of private institutes the scope and content of the internal regulation are very limited.

- c) A regulation concerning the School Fund.
- d) A regulation governing the university assistance service.

These internal regulations are issued by the academic authorities, and assure the universities their administrative autonomy.

Points of Uniformity Between the Various Universities

As government institutions, all universities have certain features in common. In spite of their division into categories A, B, and private universities, all these institutions and their degrees have the same standing before the law. State control of all universities is exercised through a department of the Ministry of National Education known as the Department of Higher Education. The Law of September, 1923, lists the following academic authorities as the governing bodies of universities and higher institutes:

1) The rector of a university or director of a higher institute. He is the head of the administration and has executive duties. In the higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences the chief administrative officer is the president of the administrative council, who may be some one other than the rector or director. A rector or director may, however, be placed at the head of the institutes of economic and commercial sciences.

2) An Academic Senate for institutions composed of two or more faculties and schools.

3) An Administrative Council.

4) Deans of faculties and schools.

In the case of institutions consisting of a single faculty or school, the rector or director of the institute is also the dean of the faculty or school.

5) Faculty and School Council. In universities and institutes composed of a single faculty or school, all the powers of the Academic Senate are exercised by the Faculty or School Council. Up to 1926-27 this body was known as the Academic Council in Institutes of agriculture, veterinary medicine, and economic and commercial sciences.

6) General College of Professors.

7) Office of the Secretary. The chief officer of the Office of the Secretary is called the director. He regulates all services and, among other things, has charge of student records.

8) The Bursar's Office in charge of all financial transactions.

9) The Service Fund. The control of the fund is entrusted to the bursar or to a credit institution.

Rectors and directors of royal universities or institutes are appointed by the Crown, through the Ministry of National Education, from among the full professors of the respective universities or institutes. They hold office for two years and may be reappointed. In the case of private universities and higher institutes the rectors and directors are elected in the manner prescribed by the constitution.

When he deems it advisable, the Minister may appoint a pro-rector or a pro-director, choosing him from among the professors of the same institute, or from another located in the same city. The tenure of such officer is for one academic year and he may be reappointed. Rectors may delegate their administrative and accounting duties to a professor of their choice by designating him to the Minister.

The rector or director is the responsible administrative officer who confers degrees in the name of the King, presides over meetings of the academic council and the assembly of professors, maintains general university discipline, and makes an annual report to the Minister. The rectorship frequently rotates from one faculty to another. The office of rector of an Italian university is analogous to that of an American university president, but the rector has distinctly less authority and influence than a university president. An important difference lies in the fact that while the incumbent of the rector's office is constantly changing, the American college president is permanent.

In the higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences these duties are divided between the president of the administrative council and the rector.

In the matter of administrative autonomy, however, the Government has been severely criticized by university professors throughout Italy because the choice of rectors and deans has been more highly centralized in the hands of the Ministry of National Education than ever before. The Government has defended this provision as being a necessary temporary measure.

According to the new law the Academic Senate is composed of the rector, who is the presiding officer, and of the deans of the faculties and directors of the schools whose degrees or diplomas admit students to the state license examinations. The duties of the academic

senate are largely advisory and relate primarily to the educational organization of the institution. It has some definite powers, such as the approval of the credentials of foreign students, and has always had the power to determine the general educational policy and the arrangement of the program of studies. With the increased freedom in the arrangement of the curriculum, the influence of the academic senate is proportionately larger.

The Administrative Council for institutes in Category A is composed of the rector or director, who is the presiding officer, two members elected from among the regular professors of the faculty or school by the general assembly of professors, two government representatives, one of whom is the comptroller of the province, and representatives of recognized corporations or private individuals who support the university to an extent of not less than one-tenth of the contribution of the Central Government. The members of the administrative council elected by the assembly of professors and the members chosen by the Minister hold office for three years and may be reappointed.

The rules concerning the composition and reappointment of the administrative council of universities and institutes of Category B are contained in the agreements for their maintenance. In each case, the Council is presided over by the rector or director, and its membership includes two government representatives, one of whom is the comptroller of the province. In the case of the higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences of Category B, the president of the administrative council may be some one other than the rector or director, provided that he is a member of the council. In any case, the rector or director is an ex-officio member.

In the case of private institutes, the regulations for the appointment of the president of the administrative council and for the composition and renewal of the council are contained in the constitutions.

The Administrative Council administers the property of the university, and prepares the fiscal reports for the current year and the budget for the coming year. The president and members of the administrative council are personally liable for expenditures made in excess of the available funds and for any financial crisis resulting from violations of the laws and regulations. In case of any irregularity in the conduct of its work, the council may be dissolved by

sovereign measures. In such event, the administrative government is entrusted to an extraordinary commissioner.

The deans of faculties and schools in royal universities are appointed by the Minister from among the permanent professors of the respective faculties or schools, on the recommendation of the rector or director of the institute. In private institutes they are appointed by the rector or director; they hold office for two years and may be reappointed. They are the executive officers of the faculty and school councils.

The Faculty and School Council is composed of the dean or director and of all the full professors of the faculty or school. The duties of the council are scientific, educational, and disciplinary. Special meetings of the faculty may be attended by the adjunct professors and private docents. The faculty council is entrusted with the preparation of the programs of the courses to be given in the following year. These programs must be submitted to the academic senate for approval.

The General College of Professors is concerned with questions affecting the general interests of the institute. It has gradually been losing its importance and prestige.

The personnel of the offices of secretaries of universities and higher institutes has charge of the administrative services—finances, educational organization, the personnel depending on corporations, students, etc. In institutions of Category A the personnel of the offices of secretaries depends on the government; it is therefore included in the hierarchy of state employees. It is subdivided into administrative personnel, accounting personnel, and clerical personnel. The salaries, pensions, and legal status of this personnel are governed by the general regulations of civil employees.

The administrative personnel of institutions of Category B and of private institutes is paid by the corporations, which determine the salaries, pensions and legal status of such personnel in the internal regulations in the case of institutions of Category B; in the case of private institutions, such matters are provided for in the constitutions. The State provides for the pension of the administrative personnel of institutes of economic and commercial sciences.

A project is being studied at present concerning the complete reorganizations of the services of the offices of secretaries of universities and of the personnel connected with these services.

Composition of Universities and Institutes

The subjects of study offered by universities and higher institutes are coordinated so as to constitute faculties and schools which are defined as "educational organisms established for scientific and cultural purposes, directed by a dean, and offering a number of subjects so planned as to lead to an academic degree after a fixed period of time and on the basis of a certain number of examinations." The term "school" is applied to those institutions directed toward special ends, particularly those offering post-graduate studies. The organization of faculties and schools is left to the initiative of the academic authorities who prepare their regulations which are then included in the constitutions. These regulations determine the subjects of study, the length of the courses, the examinations to be held, and the degrees to be conferred.

Post-graduate courses and seminars for the study of special subjects may also be organized and joined to the faculties and schools by grouping or coordinating related subjects, even though such subjects may be offered by different faculties and schools. The establishment of these courses and seminars is always determined by the constitutions.

The composition of a university or institute depends on the category to which it belongs. In the case of universities and institutes of Category A, the law prescribes that each of the ten universities must have a school of pharmacy and the following four faculties: jurisprudence; letters and philosophy; medicine and surgery; mathematical, physical and natural sciences. To these may be added other faculties and schools which each university or institute may organize as it sees fit. Any faculty or school thus added must be listed in the constitution.

The composition of universities included in Category B is fixed by the financial agreement between the State, the university, and other corporations.

The schools of engineering of Category A, the higher institutes of agriculture, veterinary medicine, and economic and commercial sciences are organized by their respective laws as institutes having one faculty or school.

According to recent laws, the following may constitute faculties: jurisprudence; political sciences; economic and commercial sciences;

letters and philosophy; medicine and surgery; veterinary medicine; pharmacy; mathematical, physical, and natural sciences; engineering; architecture; agriculture.

*Maintenance and Support of Universities and Institutes
of Higher Education*

Institutions of Category A are entirely supported by the State; institutions of Category B are maintained through agreements between the State, chartered associations, and private individuals; private institutions are maintained by chartered associations or private individuals and receive no financial support from the Government.

The extent of the Government's participation in the maintenance of universities and higher institutes is, therefore, one of the features distinguishing the three categories of institutions. The Government gives to universities and institutes of Category A all the money necessary for their maintenance. In addition, the Government provides for the payment of salaries and other emoluments of full professors and of the personnel connected with the offices of the secretaries. Adjunct professors and personnel of all other categories are paid by the university corporation, but the expenditures relating thereto are computed in the Government's contribution toward the maintenance of the institution.

The universities of Category B are maintained by contributions by the Government, chartered associations, and private individuals as fixed by agreement between these groups. Universities of this category provide from their own resources for the payment of the salaries of the entire personnel: professors, assistants, administrative, technical and subordinate personnel. The Government is responsible only for the payments to retire full professors of these institutions, except those of the engineering school of Turin and the Naval School of Genoa. In the case of the institutes of economic and commercial sciences, it is also responsible for payments to retire administrative officers.

The following table indicates the amount contributed by the Government each year for the support of universities and institutes of Category B.

<i>Location</i>	<i>Royal University or Institute</i>	<i>Annual State Contribution (Lire)</i>
Bari	Royal University	1,285,000
Bologna	Royal School of Industrial Chemistry	78,100
Catania	Royal University	1,520,000
Florence	Royal University	2,400,000
Genoa	Royal Naval Engineering School	150,000
Macerata	Royal University	150,000
Messina	Royal University	1,020,000
Milan	Royal University	300,000
Milan	Royal Engineering School	400,000
Modena	Royal University	1,000,000
Parma	Royal University	1,000,000
Sassari	Royal University	900,000
Siena	Royal University	1,000,000
Turin	Royal Engineering School	1,350,000

In 1932-33 the Italian Government spent 103,437,000 lire on university and higher education, an increase of about twenty million lire over the expenditures for 1928-29. A large share of this sum goes into salaries of professors as state employees. The balance is spent in lump sum grants for the maintenance of various universities. The government also appropriates each year a fund of two million lire which is distributed among the scientific institutes, research studies, etc. to encourage research and to ameliorate the scientific and educational equipment of the various institutions.

Budgets and Accounts

The estimated and final budgets give a complete picture of the resources and financial condition of university corporations. The estimated budget is prepared by the bursar's office (*economato*), and is submitted by the rector or director to the administrative council, for approval, in the month of June. The balance sheet, containing a record of the income and expenditures of the preceding period, accompanied by a report of the work of all services, is presented to the Council in the month of December. Neither the budget nor the balance sheet is subject to the approval of the Minister of National Education. However, in order to keep the central administration informed of the financial condition of universities, a copy of the budget and the balance sheet is transmitted to the Ministry. The Govern-

ment is thus freed from direct responsibility for the final allotment of moneys.

The balance sheet is audited by the Board of Exchequer (*Corte dei Conti*). Every institution is required to send its balance sheet and the accompanying documents to this body.

Endowments, Income, and Expenditures

The endowment of university corporations consists of all portable and real property, obtained either by purchase or gift. In addition to the real property, the institutes enjoy the free and perpetual use of all government property in their possession.

The ordinary and extraordinary expenditures for the maintenance of university property are paid from the budget of the institution.

The State, acting through the Ministry of Public Works and the Ministry of Education, directly provides for the maintenance of all newly constructed buildings and grounds as well as other important buildings and equipment.

The following are the resources which university corporations have at their disposal to provide for their maintenance and operation:

- 1) Income from endowments.
- 2) Contributions from the Government.
- 3) Contributions from chartered associations and private persons.
- 4) School fees and surfees, fees paid for the practice of private docentships, contributions by students, fees paid to the offices of secretaries, etc.
- 5) All other moneys received from corporations and private persons.

The principal income of a university is derived from the fees, surfees, and contributions of students, and from grants by the Government, chartered associations, and private individuals.

University corporations enjoy broad powers in the administration of their funds. They are permitted to assume financial obligations, provide for expenses, and enter into contractual relations with other organizations.

The administration may either appropriate funds for the general needs of a university, or it may allot funds to the directors of the various research laboratories or scientific institutes.

Each director is free to expend the funds allotted to him by the administrative council. However, he is obliged to give an account of his expenditures to the council at the end of each fiscal year. He is the trustee of all the movable property in the institute which he directs.

Services of Universities

Scientific institutes may perform analyses and experiments at the request and on the account of private individuals or public authorities. Such services are paid for by those for whom they were performed. Private patients may be treated in the clinics. The cost for these services is fixed by the administrative authorities of the university corporation. The income so derived is turned over to the treasury of the university, and is divided into two parts: one part is credited to the institute for educational and scientific improvements; the rest goes to the assistant and technical personnel connected with these services.

The services rendered by university corporations have produced excellent results. Through these services, higher institutions keep in touch with the life of the country. While, on the one hand, a substantial financial revenue is derived therefrom, the opportunity is presented of making observations, researches, and studies which aid the technical and scientific progress of the nation.

Official and Private Teaching in Universities and Higher Institutes

In connection with each course of study, lectures are given by the professor in charge of the course, and scientific, professional and experimental exercises are usually conducted by the assistants.

Each faculty has at its disposal well-equipped research rooms, laboratories, libraries, etc., and a variety of institutes—e.g., institutes of hygiene, anatomy, etc.

The instruction given in the various faculties and schools is divided into official and private. This distinction existed even under the Casati law. According to the prior organization, official instruction was that which the State provided through its official professors in subjects included in the official program. Private instruction developed freely, and did not come under the jurisdiction of the State.

This, perhaps, represented the only form of freedom in teaching under the old system, so much so that the private docent was often considered the "rival" of the official professor. In other words, in addition to the instruction provided by the State, certain classes of persons, within limits established by law in order to guarantee high standards and seriousness of purpose, were permitted to give instruction in its institutes. They were given ample freedom to develop their individual programs in subjects other than those prescribed by the State for the official courses.

This distinction has been retained in the present organization, and the characteristics of the two types of instruction are substantially the same. However, as a result of the autonomy which the reform granted to universities and higher institutes, minor changes have been introduced. In fact, in the present system the distinction between official and private instruction is based on the title held by the professor—official or adjunct professor, on the one hand, and private docent, on the other.

From the point of view of subjects taught the distinction appears in another form: official instruction is no longer given in those subjects which are specifically and uniformly established by the State for all institutes, but is given in those subjects which each university is at liberty to specify in its constitution as composing its faculties and schools.

Up to 1927 there was no private instruction in institutes of economic and commercial sciences, but the Royal decree of July 3, 1930, No. 1176, Article 7, extended this type of instruction to these institutes so as to integrate and complete the official instruction.

In general, courses are open to the public, but those taught by private docents are open only to regularly enrolled students.

Officers of University Instruction

The teaching staff of universities and higher institutes consists of the following: full professors (*professore di ruolo*), adjunct professors (*professore incaricato*), substitute professors, private docents, assistants, and technical and subordinate personnel. There are also "emeritus" professors, but at the present time the Fascist reform is attempting to eliminate that group. Below the substitute professors come the "aggregati", or *agregés*, who are found in a few Italian universi-

ties. They may act as substitutes for professors and are paid only for the actual work performed.

Some members of the teaching staff depend directly upon the State; that is, they are appointed, paid and administered by the State. Others depend upon the university corporations.

In universities of Category B and in private universities, the entire on the State: full professors and the administrative officers. The following depend on the university corporations: the adjunct professors, assistants, and technical and subordinate personnel.

In universities of Category B and in private universities, the entire personnel (professors, assistants, administrative officers, and technical and subordinate personnel) depend upon the corporations.

No one may hold any office at any institution of higher learning, not even a private docentship, unless he is an Italian citizen and of good moral and political conduct. The citizenship requirement does not apply to the following cases: (a) the appointment of foreigners as readers (*lettori*) in foreign languages; (b) the appointment of a foreign professor to teach a subject established for international reasons.

Government supervision of the teaching staff of universities and secondary schools is provided for by a decree, published in the *Gazzetta Ufficiale* of January 21, 1927, empowering the Cabinet to dismiss any professor for political manifestations not in harmony with the general policy of the Government. The decree states that "professors in royal universities and instructors in secondary institutes, and other professors of similar rank are to be dismissed from service when, through activities in connection with their office, or even outside their office, they do not give full assurance of faithful fulfillment of their duties, or if they place themselves in a position incompatible with the general political aims of the Government."

Furthermore, the same decree requires all professors and instructors to take the following oath on assuming office: "I swear to be faithful to the King and his royal successors, loyally to observe the Constitution and other laws of the Kingdom, to exercise my office of teacher and all my academic duties with the object of forming hard-working, upright citizens devoted to their country. To that end, I swear that I do not and will not belong to any association or political party whose activities are irreconcilable with the duties of my office."

Another decree, also published on January 21, 1927, provides that schools, colleges and universities may be abolished by the Italian Government if their teachings show disrespect for the institutions and principles of the present régime. One measure empowers the Government to dismiss administrative officers whose official or personal activities or opinions are incompatible with the general political aims of the State authorities.

Official Professors and Private Docents

There are two classes of professors, corresponding to the two different types of instruction: official professors and private docents. Official courses are taught by full and adjunct professors; private courses are taught by full professors, former full professors, and private docents. As a rule, however, private courses are entrusted to the last mentioned group.

Salaries and Legal Status of Full Professors

The salaries and legal status of full professors depend on the category of the institution in which they teach. Full professors of universities of Category A and of the institutes of agriculture and veterinary medicine, except the Veterinary Institute of Perugia, are considered as State officials. They are appointed, paid and administered by the State, and belong to Group A in the hierarchy of State employees. They are classified in the following grades:

Grade 7—Extraordinary professors.

Grade 6—Ordinary professors of the third class.

Grade 5—Ordinary professors of the second class.

Grade 4—Ordinary professors of the first class.

The position of professors of universities of Category B is *sui generis*. Article 1 of the law of September 25, 1924, No. 1585, explicitly states that they are "State professors," and adds that their legal status is the same as that of professors of Category A. However, their salaries are fixed by the internal regulations of each university, and are paid from the budget of the university corporations. Their minimum salary may not be less than that established by the Royal decree of

December 6, 1923, No. 2656. Their retirement pension is paid from the State budget.

The legal status of professors of the institutes of economic and commercial sciences is the same as that of other professors, but their salaries are regulated by the Decree of November 11, 1923, No. 2395, in which they are included.

Professors of private universities are employees of the corporations. The laws and regulations concerning the legal status of full professors of other institutions are applicable to them. Their salaries are fixed by the corporations in the university constitutions. All matters affecting their legal status and their salaries are determined by the administrative council of the corporation and are enforced by its president.

The following table gives the present salaries of adjunct and full professors in royal universities:

Rank	Salary (Lire)	Additional Gratuity (Lire)
Adjunct professor	12,000	4,000
Full professor—initial salary	14,000	6,000
Full professor—After 5 years' service	15,000	6,000
Full professor—after 10 years' service	17,000	6,000
Full professor—after 15 years' service	18,500	6,000

Full Time Positions

The term "professorship" refers to a course of lectures on a specific subject. In general, however, the term refers to a "full time" position. Bearing this in mind, it will be seen that the so-called "ruolo organico" of an institution comprises all the full time positions established in the institute. In the case of professors of institutions of Category A, the "roll" is fixed in Table D of the law of September 30, 1923, which also shows the distribution of these positions among the various faculties and schools. This table has been modified many times by subsequent legislation.

In the case of institutes of agriculture and of veterinary medicine the "rolls" are fixed in the corresponding table annexed to their constitutions.

The "rolls" of institutes of Category B are fixed by the agreements. Although commercial institutes have the characteristics of universities of Category B, they do not have fixed positions in their agreements. Instead, these are contained in a special table annexed to their constitutions. Finally, the "rolls" of private institutions are contained in their respective constitutions.

The number of full time positions in each faculty or school does not correspond to the number of subjects taught in the faculty or school. Usually the number of positions is less. This gives rise to two important consequences: (1) official subjects are taught by full time and adjunct professors; (2) whenever a vacancy occurs in a full time position, each faculty has the right and duty to decide to which subject the full time post may be assigned.

Competitive Examinations and Appointments

After determining which subject is to be considered vacant, the faculty or school must also decide whether it wishes to fill it by a new appointment or by the transfer of a full professor from some other institution. No full time position may, as a rule, be left vacant for a period longer than two years. Upon the expiration of that period, if the faculties or schools have not in the meantime filled the vacancy, the Ministry has the right to provide for the appointment of a full professor in accordance with the laws and regulations.

In general, the law prescribes a competitive examination for the appointment of full time professors. The system of competitive examinations has been modified from time to time. The following is a description of the system now in force:

Candidates in a competitive examination are required to submit their degrees, publications and other qualifications. In addition, the examining commission may, if it wishes, require candidates to give evidence of their aptitude for the teaching profession, and may also require a practical test.

An examining commission is appointed by the Minister, and is composed of five members chosen as follows: the faculty or school which has requested the competitive examination designates three professors or specialists in the subject in which the examination is to be held. The faculties or schools which normally offer the subject in which the competitive examination is to be held (excluding the faculty

or school which has requested the competitive examination) designate as a body six full professors who are or who have been full professors in the subject. Only in case there are no professors in the subject may specialists in the subject be designated. For this purpose, the faculties of political science and of economic and commercial sciences are considered as faculties of jurisprudence; the faculties of veterinary medicine as faculties of medicine and surgery; the schools of architecture as schools of engineering; and the faculties of agriculture as faculties of mathematical, physical and natural sciences. The first section of the Higher Council of National Education designates six full professors or specialists in the subject in which the competitive examination is to be held.

The Minister appoints the commission, selecting one member from the first group, two from the second, and two from the third. Full professors who intend to take part in a competitive examination may not be designated as members of examining commissions. Professors or specialists connected with the first section of the Higher Council may not be appointed as members of examining commissions.

After examining the credentials of all candidates, the commission selects a trio of names from among the candidates in their order of merit as satisfying the requirements to fill the professorship. The faculty which has requested the competitive examination selects one of the three persons on the list. If the selection falls on the first candidate, the Minister (or the corporation, in the case of private institutions) appoints the person designated by a decree. If the choice falls on the second or third person on the list, the appointment cannot be made until the person whose name leads the list has already been appointed, or has refused the appointment, or already holds the title of a university professor. Faculties and schools of other universities may avail themselves of the results of the competitive examination until two years after the approval of the lists.

Those who, in the opinion of the administration, do not possess the necessary requisites of good civil, moral and political conduct, are excluded from the competitive examinations, or, if they have been successful in the examinations, they cannot be appointed.

This system of competitive examinations has been criticized in that it is impossible for a young man of ability to secure a position in a faculty unless the faculty chooses to consider him. Before the War, advancement in academic rank was slow and arduous, but, during the

War, all competitive examinations for university posts were discontinued, and now there are so many vacancies that advancement is much more rapid. In fact, it is so rapid that the professoriate is in danger of being recruited from inadequately prepared young men. Several Ministers of National Education have pointed out that the preparation of candidates for these examinations has been grossly inadequate.

Extraordinary and Ordinary Professors

Full time professors are of two grades: extraordinary and ordinary. Candidates are appointed to the rank of extraordinary professor for a period of three years, during which they may be removed from office by decision of the faculty or school. After three years of efficient and uninterrupted service they may be appointed to the rank of ordinary professor, provided that their work is found satisfactory by a commission of three members designated by the Higher Council of National Education. If the report of the commission is unfavorable to the candidate, the professor may, with the unanimous approval of the Higher Council, be kept in the service for another two years, at the end of which his scientific and educational accomplishments are reviewed by a new commission. Professors who fail to be promoted to the rank of ordinary at the end of three or five years are removed from the service.

Appointment of Professors of Distinguished Reputation

In addition to the appointments made on the basis of competitive examinations, the law, *in exceptional cases*, gives the Minister the power to appoint as ordinary professors persons who, through their publications, discoveries and teachings, have earned a distinguished reputation in the subject they are to teach. The Casati Law of 1859, and the Consolidated Law of 1910, made a similar provision for the appointment of university professors. The provision was slightly different from that contained in the present law, since the discretionary power granted to the Minister was uncontrolled save by the responsibility which he assumed in the choice of professors. The 1923 law limits the power of the Minister in two ways: first, the appointment must be proposed by the faculty or school on the basis of the favorable vote of three-fourths of the full professors; second, the proposal must be approved by two-thirds of the members of the Higher Council.

Transfers of Professors and Exchanges with Foreign Countries

With their consent, full professors may be transferred as follows:

- a) To a full time position in the same subject at another university or institute;
- b) To a full time position in the same or at another university in a related subject;
- c) To a full time position in the same or another university in a subject other than the one taught.

This method of transfer is permitted only when the professor holds the rank of ordinary, when he has been professor of the subject he wishes to teach, when his name has been included for a period of not more than two years in the list of three names based on a competitive examination for a professorship of the new subject and, finally, when he has held the title of adjunct in the subject for at least three years.

Every transfer is subject to the approval of the faculty or school concerned. The approval is determined by the vote of the majority of ordinary professors of the faculty or school; but, in the case of transfers from one subject to another, the decision of the faculty or school must also be approved by the Higher Council of National Education.

The following transfers of professors are permitted by law:

- a) From institutions of Category A to institutions of Category B and vice versa;
- b) From institutes of agriculture, veterinary medicine, and economic and commercial sciences to universities or higher institutes, and vice versa;
- c) From private institutions to institutions of Category A or B, and vice versa;
- d) From royal or standardized higher normal institutes to other higher institutions, and vice versa;
- e) From the Oriental Institute of Naples, the Naval Institute of Naples, or the Higher Normal School of Pisa to universities or other higher institutions, and vice versa.

In addition, transfers of professors in foreign universities to Italian universities are permitted, provided they pass a competitive examination for one of the universities of Italy.

Exchanges of Italian professors for foreign professors are permitted, that is, Italian professors may be sent abroad to teach in Italian or foreign institutions retaining their rank of full professors in active service so far as career and salary are concerned. Similarly, foreign professors may be invited to teach in Italian institutions.

Transfers may take place only with the consent of the professors. This is an important prerogative of professors. Only in exceptional cases, and for a limited period, has the Government the power to transfer professors from one university to another, as for example if their stay at the university is incompatible with educational and general exigencies. This step may be taken only with the approval of the Council of Ministers.

Duties of Professors

Full professors have the following duties and obligations:

- a) To devote to their teaching, both lectures and exercises, as many hours per week as the nature and scope of their subjects require;
- b) To observe the pre-established academic calendar;
- c) To direct the work of laboratories, institutes, clinics, research studies, etc. connected with their professorships;
- d) To participate in all academic and related functions to which they may be invited as, for example, meetings of councils or colleges of universities and institutes, commissions for competitive examinations, private docentships, and State examinations;
- e) To reside permanently in the city wherein the institute to which they belong is located. They may, however, be permitted to reside in a nearby city provided that it does not interfere with the efficiency of their work.

The position of full professor cannot be combined with any other full time position, whether depending on the State or on other public corporations. The law provides for a few exceptions to this rule.

Discipline of Professors

The following disciplinary punishments may be imposed on full professors according to the seriousness of the offense:

- (1) censure;
- (2) suspension from office with loss of salary up

to one year; (3) revocation of the professorship; (4) suspension from office without loss of the right to a pension or grant.

The censure consists of a written reprimand from the rector or Minister. All other punishments are imposed by the Minister in agreement with the Disciplinary Court established by royal decree and composed of the Under-Secretary of State for National Education, who presides over it, and of eight members elected from among the members of the first section of the Higher Council. The members of the Court hold office for two years and may be reappointed. A regular disciplinary trial is held before this Court, with all the guarantees prescribed by law.

The Disciplinary Court was established by virtue of Article 21 of the Royal decree law of August 28, 1931, No. 1227. Before this date, disciplinary proceedings against university professors were held before the Higher Council, which included two ordinary professors selected from among the professors of the faculty with which the defendant was connected.

Leaves of Absence

The regulations concerning leaves of absence for civil employees of the State apply also to professors. However, leaves of absence granted for reasons of family cannot terminate during the period from June 1 to September 30, unless the leave of absence has been granted for the maximum period possible. Leaves of absence granted for family reasons cannot exceed thirty days in one academic year.

The Minister may grant leaves of absence for a maximum period of one year to professors who wish to go abroad for study and research. Such leaves cannot be renewed during the following year.

Retirement of Professors—Emeritus and Honorary Professors

The services of a professor may terminate either because he has reached the age limit or because he has been dismissed. The retirement age for professors is seventy-five years. Those who reach the age limit during the academic year remain in office until the end of that period if they have actually started their course. They are then retired as of August 1, following.

Professors are permitted to retire on pension after thirty-five

years of uninterrupted service, or upon their reaching the age of sixty years, provided they have been in the service for at least twenty-five years. They are obliged to retire at the age of seventy-five. Professors may be removed from the service by a decree of the Minister with the unanimous vote of the Higher Council when it is found that, even before reaching the age of retirement, they are no longer able to fulfill efficiently the duties of their office. The interested persons may present their case before the Higher Council.

The pension is based upon the salary of the three years preceding retirement. Professors who have served thirty-five years receive their full salary; for shorter periods of service, the pension is calculated at one thirty-fifth times the number of years in the service. However, in order to enjoy pension rights, a professor must pay back three per cent of his annual salary, if it is three thousand lire or less; five per cent for a salary up to and including 6,000 lire; and six per cent for a salary over 6,000 lire.

The pension of professors of royal universities and institutes paid by the State is governed by the pension regulations of all other government employees. The pensions of professors of private institutions are paid by the corporations and are fixed in the constitutions.

The system of retirement has been objected to not only because men have held posts far beyond the time of their maximum usefulness, but because it has delayed young men in securing appointments as professors. It has frequently happened that a first assistant has had to wait as long as twenty years before being able to secure a position as professor.

Ordinary professors who have been in the service at least twenty years may receive, upon their retirement, or when their resignations have been accepted, the title of emeritus professors; if they have been in the service at least fifteen years, they may receive the title of honorary professors. These titles are conferred by royal decree, on the proposal of the Minister who acts on the recommendation of the faculty or school with which the professor was connected at the time of his retirement.

Emeritus and honorary professors do not enjoy any special academic prerogatives.

Adjunct Professors, Substitutes, and Special Appointments

Certain subjects which are included in the regular curriculum of a faculty or school, but for which there is no full time professor, are taught by adjunct professors who are appointed and paid by the university corporations. In no case may an adjunct be appointed for a period longer than one academic year; they may, however, be reappointed.

Appointments as adjunct professors may be made in the following order: (a) private docents of the same or related subjects; (b) persons who are not engaged in the teaching profession, but who, in the opinion of the faculty or school, possess the necessary qualifications; (c) full professors.

Full professors may not be appointed as adjuncts if their services are to be paid for by the same faculty or school. However, in exceptional cases and for the good of the service, the Minister, after consulting the Higher Council, may grant the faculty or school the necessary authorization to make such an appointment.

A substitute appointment differs from that of an adjunct in that the substitute is appointed whenever the regular incumbent of the professorship is temporarily absent for legitimate reasons. If the absence of the incumbent is for not more than two months, the substitute is appointed by the rector or director, on the proposal of the regular incumbent. For longer periods of absence, substitutes are appointed in the same manner as adjuncts.

The salary of a substitute is paid by the university corporation. If the absence of the regular incumbent is due to his having received a special appointment from the Government, the substitute is paid by the State.

Positions that are vacant for a limited time may be filled by ordering a full professor from a secondary institute to a higher institution. This is known as a special appointment. Such orders are issued by the Minister, on the proposal of the faculty or school concerned. In such cases the university is required to pay the State, for the entire duration of the appointment, the sum of all emoluments to which the professor is entitled.

Teaching Qualifications of Private Docents

Certificates qualifying their holders as private docents are granted by a decree of the Minister to the following persons:

- 1) Those who are adjudged qualified by appropriate examining commissions. This is the normal method of obtaining the qualifying certificate as private docent.
- 2) Those who enjoy a distinguished reputation in the subject which they wish to teach. This method of issuing a qualifying certificate is subject to the unanimous approval of the Higher Council.
- 3) Those whose names are included in the list of three as the result of a competitive examination. In such case, the qualifying certificate is issued in the subject for which the examination was held.

A special commission is appointed for each subject to judge the qualifications of the candidates referred to in (1) above. This commission is composed of three professors or specialists in the subject and is appointed by the Minister on the designation of the Higher Council. The members hold office for two years and may not be reappointed until after the lapse of another two years. The commission's judgment is based on the degrees and publications presented by the candidates, on their lectures, and on teaching and experimental tests.

As a rule, candidates must possess a degree or a diploma from one of the universities or higher institutes of Italy. However, the Commission may also permit persons without a degree to present themselves at the examinations. The qualifying certificate is valid for a period of five years; at the expiration of this period it may be definitely confirmed by the Minister on the recommendation of the faculty or school. For this purpose the faculty or school is required to ascertain and judge the scientific and educational accomplishments of the docent during the five-year period.

Practice and Discipline of Private Docents

A private docent may teach at any institution or higher learning having a faculty or school which offers subjects related to the one in which he has been qualified to teach. He may not teach in more than one institute at a time. In previous years, private docents were permitted to practice only at the university for which the qualifying certificate had been granted.

Candidates who have received the qualifying certificate and who wish to practice must:

- a) apply to the rector or director of the institution he selects;
- b) deposit the qualifying certificate with the institution;
- c) pay the prescribed practice fee;
- d) present the syllabus of the course which he proposes to conduct, and apply for the necessary teaching equipment, laboratories, museums, etc.

Students are permitted to register for subjects taught by private docents and receive credit towards their degree. The constitutions of universities and higher institutes contain the regulations governing credit for courses conducted by private docents. Courses for which credit is given are called approved courses; the approval is given by the faculty or school.

Private docents enjoy the same rights towards students registered for their respective courses as the official professors, and university authorities are required to protect private docents in the exercise of their rights.

Private courses are held in the buildings of the university, but may be held elsewhere with the consent of the rector or director.

At the end of the academic year the Administrative Council appropriates from the budget of the university corporation the fee to be paid to the private docent. The amount of the fee depends on the importance of the course taught.

Private docents are subject to academic disciplinary regulations under the supervision of the competent authorities. The following disciplinary punishments may be imposed upon them, according to the seriousness of the offense: (a) censure; (b) suspension of the qualifying certificate from one to three years; (c) revocation of the qualifying certificate.

Censure may be imposed by the rector or director. The other punishments are administered by the Minister after a hearing before the executive committee of the first section of the Higher Council, before which the regular disciplinary trials are held. The trial is held under the same conditions as for official professors.

The qualifying certificate of a private docent becomes invalid under the following conditions:

- a) If the holder of the certificate obtains an appointment as full

professor. However, he still retains the right to give private courses in his or related subjects.

b) If the holder of the certificate has not taught for five consecutive years without legitimate reasons.

The qualifying certificate may be revoked (a) if the private docent has been sentenced to a penal institution, or if he has been removed or discharged from public office; (b) if he has placed himself in a position incompatible with the political objectives of the Government.

The Assistant Personnel

A large group of university officers of instruction is comprised of *aiuti*, or first assistants, the highest grade in the assistant personnel, and of a still larger number of *assistenti*, or second assistants. In these two classes, the recent reforms has attempted to effect a considerable modification. Previously, both first and second assistants had a definite position as government employees which enabled them to move from one faculty to another, retaining their positions and their rights of seniority and the pay accumulated from the beginning of their assistantship. The Fascist reform does not recognize the assistant group as State employees, but requires their selection to be entirely local, and discourages their moving from one institution to another. This regulation, however, does not affect all those who held positions as assistants prior to the passage of the reform. The present organization of scientific laboratories and the status of university assistants have been severely criticized by Italian educators, who maintain that both problems should be solved by the Government at once.

Assistantships are of vital importance to the life and future of universities, especially in scientific and experimental subjects. The duty of assistants is to aid and collaborate with professors in their scientific and educational work; they prepare the experimental material used in the courses, perform experiments, make studies and researches. But the position of an assistant becomes more important and his work will appear more significant if we bear in mind the fact that assistants are select students who continue the work of their professors. In reality, they constitute a school, using the term in its highest educational and scientific meaning, and this school prepares the future university professors.

Assistants are classified as *effective* and *voluntary*. The former receive a salary, while the latter receive no remuneration at all. Recently, another class of assistants was created, the *extraordinary assistants*, who also receive a salary. Assistants in languages and literature are known as *lettori*, or readers.

All assistants depend on and are paid by the university corporations. Their legal status — competitive examinations, duration of appointments, etc. — is provided for in the organic law and in the general regulations.

Technical and Subordinate Personnel

The technical and clerical services of universities are entrusted to a special category of employees. The technical personnel consists of specialized laborers (electricians, mechanics, aids, etc.) who are, as a rule, connected with research studies, laboratories, and scientific institutes. This personnel is paid by the university corporations for all three types of institutions. Their position is defined in the internal regulations in the case of universities of Categories A and B; in the case of private institutions, their position is provided for in the constitutions. The salaries of the subordinate personnel in institutes of economic and commercial sciences are the same as those of the subordinate personnel of the central administrations of the State.

The following table shows the number of professors of various categories in universities and higher institutes for the academic year 1931-32:

Universities and Higher Institutes	Full-time Professors				
	Full-time Positions	Ordin- ary	Extraor- dinary	Adjuncts External	Private Docents
Government universities	1,091	829	89	590	2,699
Schools of Engineering and Architecture	156	117	14	283	68
Higher Normal Institutes	37	23	3	42	—
Private Universities	*79	27	16	86	12
Higher Agricultural Institutes	66	52	4	45	11
Higher Institutes of Veterinary Medicine	35	27	12	31	3
Higher Institutes of Economic & Comm. Sciences	104	62	18	127	5
Private Higher Institutes of Economic & Comm. Sciences	—	3	—	74	1
Total 1931-32	1,489	1,140	156	1,278	2,799
Total 1932-33	1,618	1,189	179	1,377	2,778
Total 1933-34	1,560	1,164	196	1,343	3,354

Of the total 7,617 professors of all grades, including private docents in all universities and higher institutes of the Kingdom in 1933-34 only 50 were women, and of these 26 were in royal universities, 21 in higher institutes, and 3 in the private universities.

During the same year there were 451 first assistants and 786 second assistants in royal universities; 55 first assistants and 333 second assistants in higher institutes; and one first assistant and 22 second assistants in private universities.

Matriculation and Registration of Students

The term "matriculation" refers to the act by which a student is admitted to a higher institution. It marks the beginning of his career as a student which terminates on his obtaining his academic degree. When a student transfers from one faculty or school to another during the course of his studies, he is not obliged to renew his "matriculation." However, a student who has already obtained his academic degree, and

who wishes to begin another course of studies, is required to renew his matriculation. The term "registration" is a more generic term and refers to the faculty, course of studies, and year of the course, in which the student has been admitted. Registration must be renewed each year.

The requirement for admission to an institution of higher learning is the satisfactory completion of a secondary school course. There are two methods for determining whether a student has had the necessary preparation to permit him to pursue higher studies: (1) the passing of the entrance examinations given by the various universities; (2) the passing of the examinations taken on the completion of the secondary school course. The entrance examination prescribed by the Casati law of 1859 was later abolished. According to the Gentile reform, the diplomas awarded on the basis of State examinations taken on the completion of the secondary school course will admit students to higher institutions. Accordingly, students with the classical maturity diploma may register in any faculty, school or institute. Students holding the scientific maturity diploma, on the other hand, may register only in the faculties of medicine and surgery; mathematical, physical and natural sciences; political sciences; schools of architecture and pharmacy; preparatory schools for engineering studies; institutes of agriculture, veterinary medicine, and economic and commercial sciences. Generally speaking, the Italian youth begins his university work at the age of eighteen. In order to register in the three-year applied engineering course, students must possess the certificate awarded at the end of the two-year preparatory course. The decree-law of October 7, 1926, No. 1977, provided that registration for the three-year applied course constitutes a new matriculation and necessitates the payment of a new matriculation fee. Officers and former officers of artillery and engineering who have completed the regular course of studies at the applied artillery and engineering school of Turin are permitted to register in the second and third years of the applied school. Graduates of the lyceums of art may register in schools of architecture. Students who have passed the scientific maturity examinations in Italian lyceums abroad or in the high schools of Rhodes, may register at any faculty or institute. Armenians who have graduated from the technical lyceum "Moorat Raphael" of Venice may register at any faculty, school or institute, excepting the faculties of jurisprudence and letters and philosophy. Graduates of the technical, agricultural, industrial, nautical, commercial and surveying institutes may register at institutes of

economic and commercial sciences. Graduates of technical agricultural institutes may register at higher agricultural institutes only if they pass an integration examination in general cultural subjects.

*Non-Matriculated Students (auditori) and Students
Registering for Individual Courses*

The Casati law of 1859 provided for two classes of students — matriculated and non-matriculated. Many changes were introduced in the classification of students by laws enacted from 1859 to 1923. The Consolidated Laws and other regulations of 1910 prescribed that non-matriculated students could register for any course without presenting diplomas from secondary schools, but they could not receive any credit toward a degree. The present system has abolished the classification of non-matriculated students. The general university regulation at present in force has established another category of students — students permitted to enroll for individual courses. Article 75 of this regulation permits students from foreign universities and higher institutes who desire to attend one or more courses in a university or higher institute in Italy to register for individual courses. They are required to present a transcript of their record or other document from the university or institute where they have studied. The same article provides that students registered for individual courses may obtain a certificate showing the subjects studied, and by passing the examinations given by the faculty or school council they may also obtain a special certificate showing the grades received in each course.

Special Students (Fuori Corso)

The position of special students has been carefully defined by Article 39 of the Royal decree law of August 28, 1931, No. 1227, which states that special students are "those who have completed the entire course of studies, but who have not yet obtained the degree or diploma, or those who, for any reason whatsoever, have interrupted their studies." Special students who wish to exercise rights as registered students are required to apply each year for the recognition of their status as students. For this purpose there is a special fee of 100 lire. Special students who do not take examinations for eight consecutive years are required to renew their registration for courses

and to repeat the examinations even in subjects already passed. In other words, students may not retain their classification as "special" for an indefinite period, but only for a maximum period of eight years.

Privileges and Duties of Students

Article 37 of the Royal decree law of August 28, 1931, No. 1227, does not permit students to register in two faculties or schools at the same time. A student begins his academic career at the time of his matriculation and ends it when he obtains his academic degree. The registration, payment of fees, attendance, and examinations are recorded in the office of the secretary in appropriate registers, which are called "registers of academic careers of students."

Qualified students enjoy the following privileges:

a) They may pursue public or private courses, and may utilize the educational and scientific resources of institutions.

b) They may arrange their program of studies in accordance with their individual requirements. This privilege represents one of the most fundamental principles of the Gentile reform. It gives students complete freedom in their choice of studies. In practice this freedom is exercised as follows: The faculties formulate and recommend a plan of studies for each year of the course. Students are then free either to follow the plan or to vary it within certain limitations. That is, they must register for the minimum number of subjects prescribed by the constitution, selecting the subjects from among those offered by the faculty in which they are registered, or from among those offered by other faculties, provided they do not exceed the number established by the constitution. The university regulations determine the general duration of the studies necessary for obtaining the various degrees.

c) They may transfer from one university to another, or from one faculty or school to another. The studies completed and the examinations passed in one institution are recognized by all other institutions. These transfers are permitted even if the educational regulations of the faculties or schools differ.

The following are the principal duties of students:

a) Registration for courses according to the plan selected.

b) Attendance at classes. Professors and private docents are required to keep a record of the attendance, diligence, and grades of

the students in their courses. Students who have not been regular in their attendance may not be permitted to take the examination in the subject, provided the official professor or private docent obtains the consent of the faculty or school council.

- c) Passing the examinations in the subjects selected.
- d) Payment of fees and contributions.

Discipline of Students

The discipline of students is entrusted to the academic authorities. Disciplinary regulations are contained in the general university regulations. In order to prevent or suppress disorders or inconveniences of any kind, the Minister or the rector or director may order the closing of one or more courses or of the entire university or institute, depending on the seriousness and urgency of the case. When disorders occur, the administrative and subordinate personnel who are under the rector act as police officers. If the means at his disposal are insufficient, the rector may ask the police authorities to restore order and discipline.

Academic Year

The academic year in Italian universities and higher institutes opens on November 1 and closes on October 31 of each year. Classes begin not later than November 5, and end on June 15. For local reasons, the opening and closing of a university may be advanced or deferred for not more than two weeks. The courses, the hours they meet, and the room assignments are not announced in a printed program, but are posted on the bulletin boards of the university after the opening of the academic year. The academic year consists of but one term and is not divided into semesters. The following holidays and vacations are observed:

October 28 — Anniversary of the March on Rome.

November 1 — All Saints

November 2 — All Souls

November 4 — Armistice Day

November 11 — King's Birthday

December 8 — Immaculate Conception

December 23 — January 1 — Christmas Holidays

January 6 — Epiphany
 January 8 — Queen's Birthday
 Carnival holidays which last one week and which immediately precede Ash Wednesday
 March 19 — St. Joseph
 March 25 — Annunciation of the Blessed Virgin
 Easter holidays which last one week.
 April 21 — Birthday of Rome
 May — Ascension
 June 15 — Classes end
 June 16 — July 15 — Period of examinations
 June 19 — Corpus Domini
 October 1 — November 1 — Second examination period.

Tuition Fees, Contributions, and Secretarial Fees

The following table shows the fees and surfees for each faculty or school:

Faculty or School	Matriculation	Annual Registration	Degree or Diploma	Annual Examin. Surfee	Degree or Diploma
Law	300	750	300	150	75
Political Science	300	750	300	150	75
Economic & Comm. Sciences	300	450	300	150	75
Letters and Philosophy	300	400	300	150	75
Medicine and Surgery	300	800	300	150	75
Veterinary Medicine	300	400	300	150	75
Pharmacy:					
Pharmaceutical course	300	650	300	150	75
Chemistry & Pharm. Course	300	550	300	150	75
Math., Phys. & Nat. Sciences	300	400	300	150	75
Engineering:					
Two-year preparatory course	300	700	100	150	—
Three-year applied course	225	900	300	150	75
Architecture	300	850	300	150	75
Agriculture	300	400	300	150	75

In addition to the above fees and surfees there are the following special fees: 20 lire surfee for a deficiency examination in each subject; 50 lire surfee for a deficiency examination for a degree, diploma, or certificate; and 100 lire yearly fee for special students (*fuori corso*).

The amount of the fees is contained in the university regulations. In the case of newly formed faculties and schools, the fees and surfees are contained in the constitutions. In the case of private universities the fees are stipulated by the corporations in their constitutions; however, they may not be less than the fee fixed for other institutions.

All fees and surfees, excepting the degree and diploma fees, are paid directly to the universities or institutes. Fees and surfees for deficiency examinations are credited to the university budget; they represent the largest source of income of the universities. The surfees for examinations in individual subjects and for degrees and diplomas constitute a fund which is divided each year among the professors as a special compensation.

The degree or diploma fees are paid to the State Exchequer.

In addition to fees and surfees, students are required to pay special contributions — e. g. laboratory fees. The nature and amount of these contributions are fixed by the administrative council of each institution. A contribution is the amount of money paid by a student for special services received from university laboratories, for example, the use of scientific apparatus and experimental material, or for clinical exercises, juridical and literary seminars, etc.

The secretarial fees are specified by law and are paid by students to obtain transcripts and other documents concerning their academic career — original degrees, certificates, attestations, transcripts, extracts, etc.

Under former régimes, poor but capable students were exempted from the payment of fees. The new law provides that students of Italian nationality cannot be exempted from the payment of fees, surfees, and contributions. A school fund, to which reference will later be made, has been established to care for this class of students. Students who are not citizens of Italy, and whose families reside outside of the peninsula are exempted from the payment of all laboratory fees and surfees, but they are liable for the payment of all laboratory fees and contributions. War orphans and war invalids are totally exempted from the payment of fees and surfees in higher institutes of economic

and commercial sciences. Since 1928 children of large families are also exempted from the payment of all fees and surfees, provided they pass all examinations with an average grade of not less than seven-tenths, and that they do not fail in any subject.

Courses of Study

The subjects of study offered by the various faculties and schools and the requirements for graduation are not uniform. The faculties are: law, letters and philosophy, medicine and surgery, mathematical, physical and natural sciences. The universities of Rome, Perugia, Padua, Pavia, and the *Sacro Cuore* of Milan have also a faculty of political science, offering a four-year course of studies, on the completion of which students receive the degree of doctor in political science. The course is four years for the study of law, letters and philosophy, and sciences; it is six years for the study of medicine. The schools are pharmacy, engineering, and architecture. The full course in the engineering school is five years. In pharmacy the course is four or five years, including one year of practice.

Before the recent reforms were enacted the Government exercised strict control over the courses and general type of instruction in the various faculties. The Gentile reform, however, attempts to modify somewhat the type of State control and to allow individual faculties a larger amount of discretion in the choice of teaching methods and courses to be offered. So far as university instruction is concerned the Gentile reform allows greater freedom of teaching and a larger degree of academic autonomy. The curricula today are beginning to show considerable differences from university to university in at least the compulsory courses, as compared to the uniformity that existed previously.

The following table lists the degrees and diplomas awarded by university faculties and professional schools, and the duration of each course:

Degrees and Diplomas Awarded by University Faculties and Schools:

No. of Compulsory Examinations	Faculty or School	Degrees & Diplomas (<i>Dottoress</i>)	Duration of Course (Years)
19	Faculty of Jurisprudence	Degree in Jurisprudence	4
13	Faculty of Letters and Philosophy	Degree in Letters	4
		Degree in Philosophy	4
22-24	Faculty of Medicine and Surgery	Degree in Medicine and Surgery	6
12-16	Faculty of Mathematical, Physical and Natural Sciences	Degree in Mathematics	4
		Degree in Physics	4
		Degree in Chemistry	4
		Degree in Natural Sciences	4
18	Faculty of Political Science	Degree in Political Science	4
13-19	School of Pharmacy	Degree in Chemistry & Pharmacy	5*
		Diploma in Pharmacy	4*
18	School of Engineering	Degree in Civil Engineering	5
		Degree in Industrial Engineering	5
		Degree in Naval Engineering	5
		Degree in Architecture	5
17	School of Architecture	Degree in Naval Engineering	5
33	School of Naval Engineering	Degree in Industrial Chemistry	5
18-21	School of Industrial Chemistry	Degree in Industrial Chemistry	5
—	National School of Dentistry**	Degree in Dentistry	6
31	Institutes of Agriculture	Degree in Agricultural Sciences	4
18-21	Institutes of Veterinary Medicine	Degree in Veterinary Medicine	4
29-40	Institutes of Economic and Commercial Sciences	Degree in Economic and Commercial Sciences	4
17-19	Higher Normal Institutes	Diploma	4
	Academies of Fine Arts	Diploma	4-5

*Including one year of practice

**Annexed to the Royal University of Rome

Each faculty has the right to formulate its own program of courses, determine the minimum number of subjects for which students must register each year, the number and form of the yearly examinations, and the form of the degree or diploma examination. Thus the subjects offered are not necessarily to be taken by every student. University courses, especially in the Faculty of Letters and Philosophy, vary in number and character according to the size and resources of the university. Each faculty or school usually recommends a program of study for each year, but students are permitted to make any changes in the program; provided, however, that they take a certain minimum of subjects, which taken together constitute a serious and organic program. Students are expected to take the examinations in the subjects studied. All examinations are oral.

The conditions for qualifying for degrees, unless the student has been admitted to advanced standing, are: (1) study in residence for four, five or six years, according to the faculty; (2) registration and passing the examination in each course (*esame di profitto*); (3) the final general examination (*esame di laurea e di diploma*), at which the dissertation is presented, publicly discussed and orally defended.

The requirements for the degree include the following:

In the Faculty of Law, eighteen courses.

In the Faculty of Letters and Philosophy, twelve courses. The following are usually suggested for the degree in Letters: Italian, Latin and Greek literature, history of philosophy or theoretic philosophy. The following are recommended for the degree in philosophy: theoretic philosophy, pedagogy, moral philosophy, history of philosophy, experimental psychology, Italian and Latin literature, either Greek or some modern literature, or ancient or modern history.

In the Faculty of Mathematical, Physical and Natural Sciences the doctorate may be taken in Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, or Natural Sciences. A scheme has been prepared for mixed degrees in Physical Science and Mathematics, and in Physical Science and Natural Sciences intended for teachers who wish to instruct in a group of scientific subjects.

In medicine the instruction is of an eminently practical character. Medical students are required to pass examinations in twenty subjects. A school of dentistry has been established at the University of Rome, and there is a school of pharmacy connected with each medical faculty

which confers a diploma after a four-year course, and after a five-year course gives the degree of Doctor of Chemistry and Pharmacy. The University of Rome also has a School of Industrial Medicine for graduates in medicine and surgery. This school confers upon its graduates a diploma of specialist in industrial medicine upon the completion of a two-year course.

For the degree of Engineering or Architecture, the first two years, which are devoted chiefly to mathematics, chemistry, elementary architecture, and ornamental design, may be taken in any university, and the three subsequent years in the Polytechnic at Turin, the Higher Technical Institute at Milan, the Engineering School at Padua, or the Naval School at Genoa. Post-graduate courses leading to a special diploma are provided in Turin and Milan.

The Veterinary School course covers four years and leads to the degree of Doctor in Veterinary Medicine.

Instruction in Italian universities is characterized by the following features: First, the importance and prominence given to the didactic lecture delivered by the full professor in contrast to the amount of individual instruction imparted by his assistants. Second, the failure to provide for individual experiment by the students in the laboratory and experimental sciences. Third, the existence of the system of private docents which tends to develop an extra-mural school not under the control of the regular professors. Fourth, the indifference to students of average ability on the part of professors and assistants, although the system of *interni* or special students affords unusual opportunities to a small number of superior men who are well taken care of.

Examinations

The following types of examinations are held in universities and higher institutions: (a) examinations in individual subjects; (b) certificate examinations; (c) degree or diploma examinations; (d) State examinations.

Examinations in individual subjects or in groups of subjects are conducted in accordance with the provisions of the constitutions of the several universities and institutes. These examinations are usually held at the end of the academic year to ascertain the proficiency of students in the subject or group of subjects. The only certificate examination is that held on the completion of the two-year preparatory engineering

course which is required for admission to the three-year applied course. The degree or diploma examination is given at the end of the academic career of students. Students who pass such examinations receive their academic degrees from the rectors or directors, who confer them in the name of the King.

The above examinations are public and are held at two different periods: the first starts immediately after the closing of the courses each year; the second, a month before the beginning of the new academic year. No other examination period is permitted.

The constitutions of universities prescribe the regulations concerning the composition of the examination commissions, their work, and the manner in which examinations are to be conducted.

Statistics on Universities and Higher Institutes

Up to the end of the World War there was a steady increase in the number of students enrolled in Italian universities and higher institutes. This increase was especially noticeable in universities located in large cities. In some cases the number of students increased to an alarming degree. Quantity did not assure quality. In fact, it was well known that students generally went to the universities not to participate in the communion of knowledge, but either to secure at least a certificate of attendance, or else to prepare for one of the numerous competitive examinations. The aim of the great majority was to cram into their heads enough information to pass these examinations.

In the period from 1894-95 to 1919-20, registration increased from 20,903 students to 45,121, a rise of more than 100 per cent. From the end of the War to the year 1928-29, a reaction occurred which brought the number of university students down to 26,189, which was approximately the registration before the War. During the economic depression there has been a steady increase in the enrolment in universities, so that in 1934-35 there were 38,482 registered students.

The following table shows the enrolment in the universities from 1894-95 to 1933-34:

Academic Year	Total Students	Academic Year	Total Students
1894-95	20,903	1918-19	39,958
1900-01	24,524	1919-20	45,121
1905-06	23,772	1920-21	43,865
1910-11	24,324	1921-22	40,881
1915-16	27,009	1928-29	27,013
1916-17	30,167	1933-34	36,497
1917-18	34,667	1934-35	38,482

These statistics do not include students enrolled at higher institutes. In 1934-35 there were 19,029 students in all higher institutes, as compared to 15,324 in 1931-32. The following table shows the steady increase in the number of students enrolled in universities and higher institutes (excluding the special students, *fuori corso*) from 1928-1935:

Students in Universities and Higher Institutes, 1928-1935

Academic Year	Universities		Schools of		Higher Institutes				
	Gov.	Private ¹	Engin. & Arch. ²	Normal	Agriculture	Vet. Med.	Econ. & Comm. Sc.	Higher Naval Institute	Higher Oriental Institute
1928-29	26,189	824	3,201	1,139	983	748	6,598	228	400
1929-30	28,844	928	3,550	1,322	1,099	704	7,445	207	541
1930-31	29,196	1,018	3,669	1,456	1,130	673	8,285	179	656
1931-32	30,723	1,061	3,479	1,806	938	615	8,409	157	535
1932-33	32,907	1,187	3,851 ³	1966	913	669	8,778	239	598
1933-34	35,238	1,259	3,757	2,471	910	657	9,182	293	537
1934-35	38,482	1,417	3,878	3,222	983	671	9,913	337	696

¹The Institute of Social Sciences Cesare Alfieri of Florence is considered as a Faculty of Political Science.

²Including the Naval Engineering School of Genoa, the Higher School of Architecture of Rome, and the School of Industrial Chemistry of Bologna.

³Beginning with the year 1932-33 the new schools of architecture of Florence, Naples, Turin, and Venice are also taken into consideration.

The increase in the number of students, however, has not been uniform. In some schools the enrolment has increased by leaps and bounds, while in others the total number of students has either remained stationary or shown a decrease. For example, the universities of Rome, Naples, Bologna, and Padua show a decided increase in enrolment, whereas the private universities and the Royal University of Macerata show a decrease. The following table shows the date of the foundation, and the total number of students in each royal and private university for certain recent years:

State							
Universities	Founded	1913-14	1919-20	1921-22	1923-24	1933-34	1934-35
Bari	1924	—	—	—	—	1,266	1,258
Bologna	1200	1,509	3,550	2,322	2,103	3,048	3,480
Cagliari	1606	250	333	408	407	525	536
Catania	1434	1,006	2,352	1,526	1,079	1,329	1,425
Florence	1924	—	—	—	814	1,372	1,469
Genoa	1243	1,094	1,854	1,340	1,515	1,569	1,730
Macerata	1290	370	147	117	—	126	138
Messina	1548	208	1,060	813	—	939	1,079
Modena	1603	428	811	748	728	622	617
Naples	1224	4,359	9,965	6,212	5,617	5,227	5,944
Padua	1220	1,526	2,426	2,163	2,216	2,644	2,776
Palermo	1767	1,501	3,327	3,459	2,702	1,896	1,978
Parma	1502	357	601	521	—	596	657
Pavia	1361	1,109	1,912	1,673	1,977	1,310	1,367
Perugia	1200	197	365	312	—	451	481
Pisa	1343	822	1,853	1,631	1,269	1,270	1,477
Rome	1303	3,044	6,120	5,100	4,583	6,130	6,714
Sassari	1607	152	257	267	—	294	311
Siena	1300	287	413	426	447	303	311
Turin	1404	1,831	2,753	2,191	2,249	2,115	2,298
Milan	1924	—	—	—	—	2,206	2,436
Private							
Universities							
Camerino	1727	382	242	206	—	119	166
Ferrara	1391	506	449	288	—	251	254
Urbino	1564	270	175	160	—	81	90
Milan—S. Cuore	—	—	—	—	—	640	710
Florence (Cesare Alfieri)	—	—	—	—	—	168	197

The following table shows the number of students enrolled and the degrees and diplomas awarded in Government and private universities, classified according to faculties and sex:

Faculty	Students in 1934-35			Graduates 1933-34
	Male	Female	Total	
Law	12,461	369	12,830	2,433
Letters & Philosophy	2,165	2,710	4,875	762
Medicine & Surgery	12,998	568	13,566	1,657
Math., Phys. & Nat. Sc.	3,523	912	4,435	704
Political Science	849	44	893	162
Pharmacy	1,638	991	2,629	773
Veterinary Medicine	671	—	671	148
Total	34,305	5,594	39,899	6,639

The above table shows that the faculties of medicine and surgery have the largest enrolment, having more than 35 per cent of the total registration. The other faculties in the order of registration are: Law, 31 per cent; Letters and Philosophy, 13 per cent; Sciences, 11 per cent; Pharmacy, 7 per cent; Political Science, 2 per cent; Veterinary, Medicine, 1 per cent.

The table also shows that young ladies attend all faculties and schools. Quite naturally, the largest number of them register in the faculties of Letters and Philosophy. Of the 5,594 women registered, 2,710 or 48 per cent were in Letters and Philosophy; 991 or 18 per cent were in Pharmacy; 912 or 17 per cent were in Sciences; 568 or 10 per cent in Medicine and Surgery; 369 or 6 per cent in Law; and 44 or less than 1 per cent in Political Science. There were no young ladies registered in the schools of Veterinary medicine.

Academic Degrees and State Examinations

It has already been pointed out that one of the fundamental features of the new university organization is the distinction made between academic degrees and professional titles. In describing the general characteristics of the new organization, mention has also been made of the principles on which this distinction is based, and of the establishment of State license examinations.

Academic titles, degrees and diplomas are conferred by universities

and higher institutes at the end of the course of studies in the name of the King. The only degree granted in an Italian university is the *laurea*, conferring the title of doctor (*dottore*) which is granted at the end of the required years of study in the particular subject in which the student has done his work; e. g. *dottore* in letters, in political science, etc. In pharmacy, a diploma is awarded in addition to the degree. The Italian degree of *dottore* is not equivalent to the Ph. D. of the American university, but more nearly corresponds to the M. A. There is no special requirement for the medical degree, a *dottore* being awarded in the subject of medicine as in other fields. The following table shows the degrees and diplomas awarded by universities and higher institutions from 1928 to 1934:

Degrees and Diplomas Awarded by Universities and Higher Institutes 1928-1934:

Academic Years	Universities Gov.	Priv.	Higher Institutes						
			Sch. of Eng. & Arch. (b)	Normal	Agric.	Vet.Med.	Econ. & Comm. Sc.	Higher Naval Institute	Oriental Institute
1928-29	5,874	257	1,113	323	197	198	793	26	32
1929-30	5,658	248	1,005	267	230	224	1,014	31	25
1930-31	5,456	229	1,070	225	299	193	1,020	53	61
1931-32	5,728	229	965	230	206	123	1,066	29	75
1932-33	6,050	350	977	287	193	118	1,180	34	84
1933-34	6,315	324	884	413	217	148	1,309	27	101

(a) The Institute of Social Sciences Cesare Alfieri of Florence is considered as a Faculty of Political Science.

(b) Including the Naval Engineering School of Genoa, the Higher School of Architecture of Rome, and the School of Industrial Chemistry of Bologna.

The degrees and diplomas conferred by universities and institutes have merely an academic value, and no longer allow their holders to practise the respective professions. State license examinations are now established and students are required to pass these examinations before being permitted to practise their professions. Only students who have secured the corresponding degree or diploma from the faculties or schools are admitted to these examinations. Licenses to practice the professions are issued only to those who have passed the corresponding State examinations. Such license permits candidates to have their names entered in the corresponding professional registers. Members of the State license examination commissions are appointed by the Minister of National Education.

The law determines the professions for the practice of which the passing of State examinations is required; it also determines the academic degrees required for admission to these examinations. The acceptability of other academic degrees conferred by newly formed faculties or schools for admission to State examinations is determined by royal decree.

The following list contains the academic degrees required for admission to State examinations which must be passed in order to practise a profession:

Profession	Degree or Diploma Required for Admission to State License Examinations
Legal Procurator	Degree in Jurisprudence
Lawyer	Degree in Jurisprudence
Notary	Degree in Jurisprudence
Physician & Surgeon	Degree in Medicine & Surgery
Pharmacist	Degree in Chemistry and Pharmacy
	Degree or diploma in Pharmacy
Engineer	Degree in Civil Engineering
	Degree in Industrial Engineering
	Degree in Naval Engineering
	Degree in Mining Engineering
Architect	Degree in Architecture
	Degree in Civil Engineering
Chemist	Degree in Chemistry
	Degree in Chemistry and Pharmacy
	Degree in Industrial Chemistry
Veterinarian	Degree in Veterinary Medicine
Agriculturist	Degree in Agricultural Sciences
Professional man in economic and commercial subjects	Degree in Economic and Commercial Sciences (except the section of foreign languages of the Royal Higher Institute of Economic and Commercial Science of Venice)
	Degree in Economic and Maritime Sciences
	Degree in Economic, Political and Social Sciences

The Government selects certain university cities to serve as headquarters for State license examinations. For example, State license examinations in medicine and surgery were held in ten cities in 1934—Bologna, Cagliari, Catania, Florence, Naples, Pavia, Perugia, Parma, Palermo, and Turin. Graduates of any faculty of medicine and surgery are permitted to select the city in which they wish to present themselves for examinations.

The following table shows the results in State examinations for professional practice for 1933 and 1934:

Professions	1934			1933		
	Candidates		Per Cent Passed	Candidates		Per Cent Passed
	Exam- ined	Passed		Exam- ined	Passed	
Legal Procurator	1302	900	69	1,340	885	66
Lawyer	134	42	31	80	46	58
Physician & Surgeon	1,682	1,522	90	1,553	1,403	89
Chemist	343	269	78	325	229	70
Pharmacist	732	643	87	737	656	89
Engineer	910	830	91	986	863	88
Architect	90	69	76	78	59	76
Agriculturist	133	102	76	122	101	83
Veterinarian	126	125	99.2	114	111	98
Statistician	165	82	50	73	58	80
Economist	106	48	45	106	59	56
Total	5,723	4,641	81	5,514	4,470	82

The percentages of students passing in all types of examinations in 1933 and 1934 were 82 and 81 respectively. In 1934, the percentage of students who passed in veterinary medicine was 99.2 per cent; in engineering, 91 per cent; in medicine and surgery, 90 per cent; in pharmacy, 87 per cent; in chemistry, 78 per cent; in agriculture, 76 per cent; in architecture, 76 per cent; for legal procurator, 69 per cent; in statistics, 50 per cent; in economics and commerce, 45 per cent; in law, 31 per cent.

Candidate who wish to qualify for full-time teaching positions in government secondary schools are required to pass competitive qualifying examinations which are held annually. The following table shows the results in the qualifying examinations for teachers of high schools and in competitive examinations for full-time positions in secondary schools in 1934:

Examinations	Candidates		Passed in Competitive Examination ¹		Qualified to Teach	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Qualifying examinations only	369	590	—	—	137	243
Examinations for qualifications and for full-time positions	750	1,496	50	112	296	636
Examinations for full-time positions only	822	1,935	92	220	—	—
Total	1,941	4,021	142	332	433	879

Honorary Degrees

Universities and higher institutions may confer degrees *ad honorem*. The award is made upon a two-thirds majority vote of the faculty, and with the approval of the Minister. The degree *ad honorem* may be conferred only on persons whose work and publications have earned outstanding distinction. The degree entitles the recipients to all the rights, privileges and immunities of ordinary degrees; that is, they have the value of academic qualifications.

Rectors and directors are permitted to award honorary degrees and diplomas to students who fell in the War during the course of their studies, or to those who fell for the redemption of their country and for the defense of the victory after the War.

Grants, Scholarships and Fellowships

Each year the Ministry of National Education awards a number of scholarships and fellowships for study in Italy or abroad to graduates of Italian universities and higher institutes who received their degrees during the preceding four years. Scholarships are awarded on the basis of titles submitted by the applicants. Usually there are two scholarships for each faculty — one for study in Italy, the other for study in foreign countries. The amount of each scholarship or fellow-

¹In addition to the professorships filled on basis of competitive examinations, 42 appointments were made among war veterans.

ship is 7,000 lire for graduate work in one of the higher institutes of the Kingdom; for graduate work in a foreign institution the amount of the scholarship is the same, but there is an additional allowance which varies from 3,000 to 6,000 lire per year depending on the foreign exchange.

In addition to these scholarships and fellowships, the Minister of National Education, within the limits of a 500,000 lire yearly fund appropriated in the budget, may award grants to Italians and foreigners to pursue courses and complete studies at higher institutions abroad and in the Kingdom respectively.

School Funds (Casse)

Every university or institute has a school fund from which poor but meritorious students receive grants with which to pay in full or in part their tuition fees, surfees and contributions. This fund takes the place of exemption from the payment of fees. The principal income of the fund is derived from the payment of ten per cent on the total contributions and fees paid by students.

Each fund is governed by special regulations, which, however, must conform to the following provisions:

a) Full fees may be granted to students who have an average of nine-tenths in all examinations of the course preceding that for which the assignment is requested, and not less than eight-tenths in any one subject; partial fees are granted to students who have obtained not less than eight-tenths in each examination. If no subject examinations are prescribed during the current or following years, grants may be made on recommendations from the professors under whom they have studied.

b) First year students may receive total or partial fees on the basis of grades received in the maturity or entrance examinations.

c) Students may be deprived of financial assistance if disciplinary measures have been taken against them.

d) No grants may be made to students who have failed in examinations.

University Foundations (Opere)

The Royal decree of September 30, 1923, No. 2102, established at every university or higher institute a University Foundation the object of which was to promote and carry out the various forms of assistance to university students. On account of the system under which they worked, however, these foundations did not meet the expectations of the authorities. The University Foundations were re-organized by the Royal decree law of August 28, 1931, No. 1227. Their financial condition has been made secure by the establishment of a fee of 250 lire to be paid by all those who receive the license to practice a profession.

One of the most important services performed by the University Foundations is in connection with the "health office" whose object is to collect information on the health of all university students, to prescribe preventive measures and to provide for the free treatment of sick students in poor financial condition. The social importance of a university health office cannot be overemphasized. Many European and American universities provide a similar service. Italy is the first country, however, to place this service under the direct supervision of the Government authorities.

The origin, nature and scope of the various foundations varies in each university. Some, as the Borromeo College and the Ghisleri College of Pavia, are for the housing of students during their academic careers, and look after their support and maintenance. Others, such as the Carlo Alberto of Turin, the Comelli, the Poeti, the Bertocchi of Bologna, the Sapienza of Pisa, etc., have been closed, but scholarships and grants have been established in their place. The history of these colleges reflects glory to the universities with which they are connected. Their origin is due to the munificence of popes, princes and private individuals.

Many other foundations have been established through the generosity of private contributors. Their object is to grant annual allowances, prizes, post-graduate grants, etc., to students during their academic careers.

All foundations are formally recognized by the Government which regulates their organization and activities. The Decree Law of August 28, 1931, No. 1227, places these Foundations under the Ministry of National Education. The Government has the right to combine two

or more foundations, change their aims, and modify their constitutions. The same decree requires all foundations to send, within the year 1935, to the Ministry of National Education a copy of the constitution, inventories, and the budget for the current year. Since all foundations are now under government control, the central administration will soon be able to collect accurate and complete information concerning the existing foundations in Italy.

*Central and Local Committees for the Coordination
of the Work of Foundations*

The Ministry of National Education has a central committee for University Foundations, which is presided over by the Minister and composed of (1) the secretary of the National Fascist Party, who has the duties of vice-president; (2) the administrative secretary of the National Fascist Party; (3) the vice-secretary of the Fascist University Groups; (4) a representative of the University Fascist Militia, appointed by the General Command of the Militia; (5) a general director of higher education; (6) a rector of a university and a director of a higher institute, designated by the Minister of National Education; (7) two full university professors, designated by the Minister of National Education; (8) a representative of the Minister of Finance, and a representative of the Minister of Corporations.

Within the Committee there is an executive commission composed of three members.

In addition to the central committee, cities with more than one university or higher institute, or more than one university and higher institute, have local committees, presided over by the rector of the royal university, or, if there is no royal university, by the oldest of the directors of the royal higher institutes. The committee is composed of the Federal Secretary of the National Fascist Party or one of his delegates; a representative of each of the foundations; a representative of the university militia; and a representative of the University Fascist Group.

It is the duty of the above committees—both central and local—to coordinate the various forms of assistance for students.

In addition, the central committee is in charge of the expenditure of a large fund which, in accordance with Article 54 of the Royal decree law of August 28, 1931, No. 1227, is formed by the payment

of a special contribution of 25 lire by all students at the time of their registration. The fund is used largely to defray the expenses in sports and the assistance given the University Fascist Groups.

University Fascist Groups

This chapter on university students would be incomplete without at least a brief mention of the important and original organization of students known as University Fascist Groups. This students' association was established simultaneously with the *Fasci di Combattimento* in 1920, and so was of a revolutionary character. Later, when the Fascists came to power, its aims and scope changed. While retaining their political features, they became real student associations. All university students between eighteen and twenty-eight years of age, who have been *Avanguardisti* or who are enrolled in the National Fascist Party, are eligible for membership.

In bringing together the youth of Italy the University Groups aim at educating students in accordance with Fascist philosophy. A University Group is found in every city having a university or higher institute, and in each principal city of a province. A nucleus may be organized wherever there are at least twenty-five university students.

All University Groups are under the Secretary of the National Fascist Party. Each provincial group is governed by a board of directors which is composed of a secretary, an assistant secretary, and an administrative secretary, and three members.

The nuclei are governed by a government representative.

The provincial university groups are under the control of the Secretary of the Group of the nearest university city.

The work of the Groups is varied. It includes sports, financial and medical assistance, and cultural and political activities, and thus embraces the entire university life of the student.

Higher Schools and Institutes

Schools of engineering, architecture, agriculture, veterinary medicine, economics and commercial sciences, library service have no official connection with universities and are autonomous. They are all of university grade, and the requirements for admission usually include the completion of an Italian secondary school course or its equivalent.

The Engineering Schools

A brief description of the establishment of engineering schools in Italy seems advisable since the Gentile law made of them the nucleus of the institutions of higher education. The first two engineering schools in Italy were founded in Naples and Rome. The former, established in 1811 by the French Government, was modelled after the *Ecole de Ponts et Chaussées* of France. The Royal decree of July 30, 1866, No. 1394, changed the school into an Applied School of Engineering. The school in Rome, founded in 1817, by a *motu proprio* of Pius VII as a School of Civil Engineering, was reorganized as an applied school by the Royal decree of October 9, 1873, No. 1612.

The two most important engineering schools offering the entire five-year course of studies are at Turin and Milan; both were established by the Casati law of 1859.

The school at Genoa was founded as an Institute of Higher Nautical Studies. The Decree of June 20, 1870, No. 5734, transformed it into the School of Naval Engineering. The school at Bologna is an outgrowth of the course of engineering studies established by the Bull "Quod Divina Sapientia" in 1824, and was connected with the Faculty of Philosophy and Mathematics of that university. It became an applied school of engineering by virtue of the Royal decree of January 14, 1877, No. 3348.

The schools of Palermo (Pro-Dictatorial decree of October 10, 1860, No. 263), Padua (Law of May 12, 1872, No. 812), and Pisa (Royal decree of October 26, 1875, No. 2746) were connected with the local universities by the application of the Royal decree of September 30, 1923, No. 2102.

All the applied schools of engineering were governed in accordance with the general regulation of October 8, 1876, No. 3434, later modified by another regulation, approved by the Royal decree of September 6, 1913, No. 1242. This remained in force until the promulgation of the Gentile law.

The Royal decree law of October 7, 1926, No. 1977, reorganized the engineering schools and prescribed the regulations for the educational organization of these institutes. These regulations may appear to conflict with the educational autonomy of higher institutions, but they were necessary because of the peculiarities of these courses and the need of placing some limitations on the wide powers of initiative

which the organic law gave to academic authorities in educational matters. The fact that limitations have been set does not imply that the liberty of the institutions has been annulled; on the contrary, it may be said that the reorganization of engineering schools represents "a legitimate development of the fundamental principles of the university reform."

The Decree Law of October 7, 1926, No. 1977, prescribes that engineering studies shall be completed in five years. This period is divided into two parts: a two-year preparatory course, and a three-year applied or professional course.

The schools of engineering of Milan, Genoa (Naval), and Turin offer the complete five-year course. The other engineering schools offer only the three-year professional course.

The two-year preparatory course may be established in any faculty of physical, mathematical and natural sciences, and in the engineering schools of Milan and Turin, and in the Naval Engineering School of Genoa.

The first year of engineering studies may also be taken in the Royal Naval Academy of Leghorn.

The same law prescribes the fundamental subjects which must be taken in the preparatory course, and provides that at the end of the two-year course students must take a diploma examination for admission to the applied course. Students who have completed both the preparatory and the three-year course, and graduates in physics are permitted to take the State license examinations for the practice of engineering.

The following fees are prescribed for engineering students:

Fee	Two-year Preparatory Course	Three-year Engineering Course
Matriculation	225	300
Tuition	900	700
Examination	150	150
License	—	100

The total number of students in engineering in 1934-35 was 3,117, of whom 13 were girls.

Schools of Engineering

Location	Founded	Cate- gory	Degrees	Professor- ships	Students 1934-35	Library Volumes
Pisa	1875	A	Civil Engineering	22	62	6,300
Rome	1818	A	Civil Engineering Industrial Engineering Mining Engineering Aeronautical Engineering	34	498	45,000
Turin	1860	B	Civil Engineering Industrial Engineering Industrial Chemistry Aeronautics Mining Engineering	29	599 ¹	75,000
Palermo	1860	A	Civil Engineering Architecture Industrial Engineering Mining Engineering	35	106	20,000
Bologna ²	1877	A	Civil Engineering Industrial Engineering Architecture Industrial Chemistry	20	107	27,000
Genoa	1781	B	Naval Engineering & Mechanics	25	142	10,400
Milan	1863	B	Civil Architecture Civil Engineering Industrial Engineering	80	1,044 ³	23,000
Naples	1811	A	Civil Engineering Industrial Engineering Mechanical Engineering Architecture	34	283	20,000
Padua	1875	A	Naval Engineering Civil Engineering Industrial Engineering	29	197	20,000

¹Including 184 students in the two-year pre-engineering course.²In Bologna there is also a school of Industrial Chemistry of Category B.³Including 476 students in the two-year pre-engineering course.

Architecture

The following are the royal schools of architecture:

Location	Founded	Degree	Length of Course (Years)	Students 1934-35
Venice	1926	Architecture	5	68
Turin	1924	Architecture	5	73
Naples	1927	Architecture	5	96
Rome	1920	Architecture	5	265
Florence	—	Architecture	5	120
Milan	1934	Architecture	5	139

The total number of students in the six faculties of architecture in 1934-35 was 761 of whom 29 were young girls.

The Higher Institutes of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine

Veterinary medicine was first taught at Bologna from 1511 to 1530 by Carlo Ruini, who studied the circulation of the blood in the horse forty years before Harvey, to whom the discovery of the circulation of the blood is attributed.

But the earliest regular schools of veterinary medicine were founded at Lyons, France, on January 1, 1762, and at Alfort, near Paris, in 1764. Later, three schools were established in Italy, at Milan, Turin and Naples, which were based on the two French schools.

The school of Milan was established in 1791 as a minor veterinary school, but in 1808 it began to offer a complete theoretical and practical course. The school at Turin was established by Victor Amedeo III in 1793 at Chivasso, and was reorganized in 1818 at Venaria Reale of Turin. The school at Naples was organized in 1798.

In addition to these autonomous schools, other schools or institutes were gradually established and annexed to the local universities: at Modena in 1827, at Parma in 1854, and at Pisa in 1870. The Napoleonic Government established the teaching of the veterinary art in the university of Perugia.

The higher agricultural institutes have a more recent origin. In 1781 the University of Bologna organized a course in agriculture which was supplementary to the course in hydrometry. In 1802, a professorship in agriculture was created. The present school was establish-

ed in 1901 by the Savings Bank of Bologna which, ten years later, turned it over to the State.

The Higher Agricultural School of Pisa originated with the Theoretical and Practical Institute of Agriculture of Meleto (Florence), which had been established by the Marquis Ridolfi in 1794. The Grand Ducal Notification of October 5, 1840, reorganizing the curriculum of the University of Pisa, created a professorship in agriculture in connection with that university. Professor Ridolfi was the first incumbent. Later, a Notification dated March 1, 1844, established a true school of agriculture with its own course of studies, but still connected with the University of Pisa.

Connected with the universities as they were, these two schools came under the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Agriculture later established other schools. A Royal decree of April 20, 1870, established a higher school at Milan; a Royal decree of January 14, 1872, established one at Portici. The Law of July 10, 1877, No. 185, assigned the property of the suppressed monastery of the Cassinesi Benedictines of Saint Peter in Perugia to an autonomous chartered association, the Foundation for Agricultural Education, whose purpose it was to support a higher institute of agriculture in the same city. The institute was created by the Royal decree of August 9, 1896, No. 499.

In 1923 at the time of the promulgation of the Gentile law on the reorganization of higher education, the following schools were dependent on the Ministry of Education: the agricultural schools of Bologna and Pisa, attached to the local universities; the autonomous veterinary schools of Milan, Naples and Turin, and those connected with the universities of Bologna, Modena, Parma, Perugia and Pisa.

The law of September 30, 1923, placed all these institutes under the Ministry of National Economy which eliminated the veterinary school of Modena and established the higher institutes of veterinary medicine of Messina (Royal decree of November 4, 1926, No. 2042), and of Sassari (Royal decree of January 12, 1928, No. 116), and the higher agricultural and forestry institute of Florence (Royal decree law of November 6, 1924, No. 1851), a reorganization of the National Forest Institute of Florence.

The Ministry of National Economy has reorganized these schools by issuing a series of regulations contained in the royal decrees of October 31, 1923, No. 2492; November 6, 1924, No. 1851, and

November 30, 1924, No. 2172, and in the general regulation approved by the Royal decree of September 4, 1924, No. 1762.

The schools of agriculture and the schools of veterinary medicine are of university grade. To be admitted to these schools students must possess the maturity diploma of a classical lyceum or of a scientific lyceum, or the equivalent.

The following is a list of the agricultural schools with their enrolment in 1934-35:

- Bologna — R. Istituto Superiore Agrario (315)
- †Florence — R. Istituto Superiore Agrario e Forestale (168)
- Milan — R. Istituto Superiore Agrario (138)
- Perugia — R. Istituto Superiore Agrario (178)
- Pisa — R. Istituto Superiore Agrario (80)
- Portici (Naples) — R. Istituto Superiore Agrario (204)

The total registration in the six agricultural schools was 983 students, of whom 13 were women.

The schools of agriculture are at present under the Ministry of National Education. They award the degree of Doctor in Agricultural Sciences upon the satisfactory completion of a four-year course.

There are nine royal higher institutes of veterinary medicine, with a total registration in 1934-35 of 636 students. These schools and their registration in 1934-35 were as follows:

Bologna (130), Messina (52), Milan (86), Naples (118), Parma (40), Perugia, (31), Pisa (63), Sassari (42), and Turin (74).

There is a private school in Camerino with 35 students.

The Higher Institutes of Economic and Commercial Sciences

Soon after its political unification, Italy felt the need of organizing its higher commercial institutes. The first of these institutes, founded in Venice in 1868, was modelled after the higher school of Antwerp. Up to 1884, it was the only higher commercial institute in Italy. Its graduates formed the nucleus of young men equipped with adequate theoretical and practical preparation, able to occupy important positions in commerce, industry, and public administration. Later, in order to keep pace with the constant technical and economic progress of the country, other institutes were created in large commercial and industrial centers. Thus the following schools were established: the higher

school of Genoa, founded by the Royal decree of May 22, 1884; that of Bari, established by the Royal decree of March 11, 1886. In 1902, through the initiative of Senator Ferdinand Bocconi, the private Commercial University of Luigi Bocconi was founded in Milan. In 1906 the higher institutes of Turin and Rome were organized.

Other higher institutes were established after the World War. In 1919 one was founded at Catania, and a private institute at Palermo; in 1920 an institute at Naples; one in Florence in 1926; and in 1929 a private higher institute at Bologna.

The higher institute of Triest, which had its origin in the Revoltella Foundation of 1877, was established as a "University of Economic and Commercial Studies" by the Royal decree of August 8, 1924, No. 1338.

Up to 1928 the higher institutes of commerce remained under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce, which later became the Ministry of National Economy. The law of March 20, 1913, No. 268, was the first integral law governing these institutes. Later, on account of the increased number of schools, other legislative measures were enacted, with the result that by 1924 it was felt that it was necessary to consolidate the laws on higher commercial education. Accordingly, a consolidated law was approved by the Royal decree of August 28, 1924, No. 1618, which was subsequently followed by a general regulation, approved by the Royal decree of July 8, 1925, No. 1227.

At the present time, the Government supports twelve institutes of economic and commercial sciences. The location of these institutes and their enrolment in 1934-35 were as follows: Bari, 436; Catania, 477; Florence, 741; Genoa, 885; Naples, 768; Rome, 1,583; Turin, 1,258; Triest, 569; and Venice, 1,081. In addition there are three private institutions: the Università Commerciale Luigi Bocconi in Milan, with 705 students; an institute at Bologna with 949 students; and one at Palermo with 461 students. The total registration in the twelve institutions in 1934-35 was 9,913 students, of whom 466 were girls.

The nine Government institutions are under the direct control of the Ministry of National Education, and the three private institutions are under its general supervision. They all award the degree of Doctor in Economics and Commercial Sciences, upon the satisfactory completion of a four-year course of studies.

The Higher Normal Institutes

A Royal decree of December 16, 1878, established two higher normal institutes for the training of secondary school teachers and for holders of administrative positions in elementary schools. These schools, located in Rome and Florence, were recognized in 1923, when a third was established at Messina for the special convenience of Sicilian teachers. Candidates for admission to these schools are required to pass an entrance examination and must be normal school graduates or have an equivalent education. Foreigners may be admitted to these institutes by passing the competitive entrance examination and by presenting the transcript of record of studies completed in foreign institutions.

The entire course extends over a period of four years. According to the new regulations students are prepared for the teaching of philosophy and letters in secondary schools, and a three-year course prepares them for administrative positions in elementary schools. The subjects of study usually include the following: Latin language and literature, Italian language and literature, French language and literature, English language and literature, German literature, philosophy and the history of philosophy, history, geography, pedagogy, school legislation, hygiene.

Three types of diplomas are awarded by these institutes: (1) for the teaching of Italian and Latin in the lower grade secondary schools; for the teaching of history and geography in the same schools and in normal institutes, and for the teaching of foreign languages and literatures; (2) for the teaching of pedagogy and philosophy in normal institutes; (3) for supervisor of elementary schools.

There are six of these institutes - three government and three private. The location, names, and registration of students in 1934-35 were as follows:

Florence — R. Istituto Superiore di Magistero (362)

Messina — R. Istituto Superiore di Magistero (395)

Milan — Istituto Superiore di Magistero Maria Immacolata (645)

Naples — Istituto Superiore Pareggiato di Magistero Suore Orsola Benincasa (78)

Rome — R. Istituto Superiore di Magistero (1107)

Turin — Istituto Superiore Pareggiato di Magistero del Piemonte (635)

The total registration in these six higher normal institutes in 1934-35 was 3,222, of whom 1,756 were women.

The Royal Higher Normal School of Pisa

The Royal Higher Normal School of Pisa was established as a branch of the *Ecole Normale* of Paris by the Imperial Decree of October 18, 1810. It was opened in November, 1813, only to be closed upon the fall of the Empire. It was reopened in 1847 by a decree of the Grand Duke. After the formation of the Kingdom of Italy, Minister of Education Matteucci reorganized it, issuing the first regulation on August 17, 1862. In 1928 the Fascist Government appointed Giovanni Gentile as its director. The school is at present governed by a constitution approved by the Royal decree of July 28, 1932, No. 1135.

The school has certain special features. It is a post-graduate school for graduates in letters or in science, and its object is to produce well-trained teachers for secondary schools. Students receive free tuition, board and room. The courses offered are complementary to those given by the University of Pisa. Students receive special privileges and are given every available facility to pursue their studies. The school is divided into two classes: (1) letters and philosophy; (2) mathematics, physics and natural sciences. Each class includes an ordinary course of studies for pupils registered in the corresponding faculty, a seminar, and a post-graduate course.

Students are admitted on the basis of competitive written and oral examinations. They are required to register at the Royal University of Pisa and pursue courses for the degree in letters and philosophy, or in mathematical, physical, and natural sciences. At the same time, students pursue special courses given by the school to complete and develop the instruction received in the above two faculties of the university. The ordinary course lasts four years; the post-graduate course lasts one year, and may be taken after obtaining the degree. At the end of the ordinary course, students receive the *diploma of didactic maturity for secondary schools*; and at the end of the fifth year, they receive the post-graduate diploma.

Students of the third and fourth years are permitted to attend the seminar.

Not more than four foreign students may be admitted to the school during any one academic year. Pupils are required to live in the school and are exempted from the payment of all fees. Girls are not admitted.

CHAPTER IX

OPPORTUNITIES FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS IN ITALY¹

Article 16 of the Royal decree law of July 3, 1930, No. 1176, provides that Italian citizens residing abroad, Italians not residing in the Kingdom, and foreigners may be admitted to universities and higher institutions, including institutes of agriculture, veterinary medicine, and economics and commercial sciences.

Foreigners who have completed the entrance requirements of an approved university in their country may enter the Italian universities, and those who have already completed one or more years of study in their own universities may be given advanced standing, even to the extent of being allowed to present themselves forthwith for the final examination without taking further courses, provided their studies have already included courses equivalent to those prescribed for an Italian degree. Save in very exceptional cases, however, a candidate who has not completed at least a year's work in the Italian universities is not likely to succeed in passing the examination. For American students, the satisfactory completion of two years of work in an approved college is generally considered to be the equivalent of the maturity diploma from an Italian secondary school, and is sufficient for entrance to any of the faculties or schools of university grade.

Students of colleges not on the approved list may be admitted with the special permission of the Minister which is granted upon the advice of the competent academic authorities and the executive committee of the first section of the Higher Council of National Education. In this manner the Italian educational authorities aim to admit

¹For a fuller discussion of the topic of this section see: Howard R. Marraro, *Handbook for American Students in Italy*, Bulletin No. 2, (1933) published by the Institute of International Education in cooperation with the Italian Historical Society.

only foreign students from accredited schools and colleges.

Foreign students who wish to study at Italian universities or institutions of higher learning are required to submit their credentials to the proper academic authorities. The evaluation of the transcripts, the determination of the year of the course for which they may register, and the requirements for the degree are determined by the academic senate and by a decree of the rector.

Registration at an Italian University

Foreign students who wish to matriculate at an Italian university as candidates for a degree (*laurea*) of doctor (*dottore*) are required to submit the following credentials:²

(1) Application for matriculation and enrolment containing the following information:

- a) Names of parents
- b) Place and date of birth
- c) Permanent residence of the family
- d) Local address of the student
- e) Name of faculty or school which the student proposes to enter.

(After arrival in Italy the student makes a formal application to the rector of the university on the official stamped paper (*carta bollata*) provided for this purpose. Two signed photographs of passport size are also required.)

(2) Transcript of high school or preparatory school record; transcript of record of college or university courses completed, bearing the seal of the institution.

(3) Statement giving exact information regarding the content and value of the subjects completed and the degree granted.

(4) Other degrees or documents which the applicant may wish to submit.

(5) Copy of birth certificate.

²According to the present (1936) regulations, the credentials of foreign students applying for admission to an Italian university should be submitted through the Italian Consul in the city nearest to where the student is located. The Consul will forward them and his recommendation to the rector of the university indicated.

All credentials must be validated by the Italian Consul (the birth certificate by the Consul for the district in which it was issued, the academic records by the Consul for the district in which the school or university is located) in accordance with the instructions of May 27, 1930, of the Minister of Foreign Affairs to all Italian diplomatic and consular offices (*dispaccio circolare 217530|C all'oggetto vidimazione titoli di studio, inviato il 27 maggio 1930 dall'on. Ministero degli Affari Esteri a tutte le RR. rappresentazioni diplomatiche e consolari italiane*). An official translation validated by the Italian Consul must accompany all documents.

All documents must be stamped by the *Ufficio del Bollo* and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Italy.

Before matriculation is completed the applicant is required to submit a receipt showing that the matriculation fee has been paid, as well as the first installment of the annual tuition fee and the first installment of the special fee for the yearly examination. Foreigners and Italians whose permanent residence is outside Italy must present evidence of their naturalization. In the case of Italians residing in foreign countries, it is necessary that a document be furnished stating the reason for their residence abroad.

Registration is completed through the secretary of the faculty in which the student wishes to study. Candidates for the *laurea* should consult the dean of the faculty or department in which they wish to secure a degree.

Applications for admission may be presented at any time, but preferably from August 1 to November 5. In special cases the rector or director may allow students to register or matriculate as late as November 30.

If the application is accepted and the student is permitted to matriculate, he receives from the secretary of the university an identification card (*tessera*) which bears the name of the student, the name of the faculty or school in which he is registered, a photograph of the student stamped with the seal of the university or higher institute, the signature of the director or rector, and that of the secretary of the university. In addition to the *tessera*, the candidate receives from the secretary a course book (*libretto d'iscrizione*) in which he enters his name and the courses he proposes to study during each school year. The course book also contains a record of the fees and special fees paid by the student, and the signatures of the professors in each of the

courses he pursued. The signature of the professor testifies that the student has attended the course regularly.

Fees

To receive academic credit and become candidates for a degree, students are required to matriculate and to pay certain fees. A table of fees for each faculty and school has been given elsewhere. (p. 248).

Students who are not citizens of Italy and whose families reside outside of the peninsula are exempted from the payment of all laboratory fees.

In its desire to encourage foreigners to study at Italian universities the Government has appropriated the sum of 200,000 lire for scholarships to "Italians and foreigners to enable them to take courses or to complete studies at universities, higher institutes, and schools of fine arts abroad or at home." This means that foreign students in Italy may be exempted from the payment of fees and surfees, and are even eligible for maintenance grants from a sum of 200,000 lire annually from which grants are also made to Italians studying abroad.

Foreign students who do not wish to matriculate for a degree may register for one or more individual courses as hearers (*uditore*). In such cases it is sufficient for the applicant to submit the transcript of his record from the college or university he has attended and his birth certificate. It is advisable to have these credentials validated by the Italian Consul. Students enrolling for single courses are entitled to an examination in each course. A certificate is awarded for each examination passed. Students who are registered as hearers for single courses do not have to pay the matriculation fee indicated (300 lire), but simply the tuition fee for the year (400 lire in letters). Foreigners pay only half of this fee, or approximately \$20.00 for the year.

All lectures are freely open to visitors. They may attend as many lectures as they please without registering or paying the tuition fee.

An official report indicates that there was a decrease in the number of foreign students in Italy during the War. In recent years the number has been increasing. From a total of 414 foreign students in 1913-14 in Italian universities and higher institutes, the number decreased to 191 in 1918-19, but increased again to 370 in 1920-21. Since 1923, the number has greatly increased. In the academic year 1934-35 there

were 2,461 foreign students enrolled in the government universities, 50 in the private universities, and 333 in the higher institutes - a total of 2,844 students. The following universities had more than 100 foreign students: Bologna, 698; Rome, 327; Modena, 241; Pisa, 201; Milan, 172; Padua, 156; Florence, 136; and Genoa, 100. The universities of Macerata and Sassari were the only two which did not have any foreign students.

The total number of graduates among foreign students in 1933-34 was 357 in government universities, 18 in private universities, and 99 in higher institutes.

Foreign Academic Degrees and Professional Titles

In accordance with the provisions of Article 17 of the Royal decree law of July 3, 1930, No. 1176, foreign academic degrees have no legal value in the Kingdom, except in cases covered by special laws.³ However, graduates of foreign universities and higher institutions included in an approved list, which, if necessary, may be modified by a decree of the Minister of National Education, may obtain the corresponding degrees from Italian universities or higher institutions. If the candidate has an academic degree from an institution not on the approved list, the Minister, upon the advice of the competent academic authorities and of the executive committee of the first section of the Higher Council of National Education, decides whether or not the foreign degree in question has the same legal value as the corresponding one conferred by Italian universities and higher institutions. The Minister, with the approval of the Academic Senate, may also permit the candidate to take the degree or diploma examination, exempting him from some or all the subject examinations prescribed by the university or higher institution for the corresponding degree. If the foreign degree is acceptable, the candidate receives the corresponding Italian degree upon payment of the degree or diploma

³The following are special laws: (1) The agreement between Italy and Great Britain for the practice of medicine between the two countries, entered into August 21, 1925, and approved by the Royal decree of June 18, 1925, No. 1489; (2) Article 40 of the Concordat with the Holy See, dated February 11, 1929, for degrees in theology and diplomas in paleography.

fee. Graduates of foreign universities who have received the corresponding Italian academic degree are required to pass the State license examinations in order to practice the professions. This provision is based upon the same principle as that concerning the admission of foreign university students to Italian institutions.

Special Spring and Summer Courses

Foreign students and tourists whose sojourn in Italy is for a limited period may take advantage of the university courses offered in the various cities during the spring and summer months. The nature, scope, and location of these courses vary from year to year, and depend upon the demands and requirements of time and place. These courses are organized by the Instituto Interuniversitario Italiano (28, Via di Monte Tarpeo, Rome) the object of which is to coordinate and develop the resources of the institutes of higher learning which offer courses in the language, literature, history, science, art and thought of Italy, especially for foreigners. It also aims to promote closer relations between the universities of Italy and other countries.

Since 1923 these courses have been increased in number, modified and improved. As a result they have acquired distinctive aims and scopes. The following subjects are offered: architecture, archaeology, Italian language and literature, medicine, political and social sciences, history, folklore, history of art, history of music, ceramics, etc. The curriculum of each course is generally arranged in accordance with the facilities of the region in which it is offered.

These courses are open to all foreigners without examination. No academic qualifications are required for admission. Those who attend the courses regularly and pass the corresponding examinations receive a certificate showing the courses taken and the grades received. Duly registered students receive special privileges during the session, including reductions in room and board, a thirty per cent reduction in railroad fares, and free admission to the art galleries and museums of Italy. The Italian Interuniversity Institute which plans all these courses is offering fellowships for foreigners wishing to do research work in Italy. The following is a brief description of the courses offered in 1935:

Faenza. Summer courses on the history and technique of Italian ceramics. June 29 to July 14, 1935. This course also deals with the

mutual influences of similar artistic forms of other European countries, as well as with modern tendencies of this art in Italy and other countries.

Florence. Spring session from March 15 to June 15, 1935. Courses in Italian language, literature, history, history of art, sculpture, painting, and music.

Summer session from July 1 to August 31, 1935 at the Abbey of Vallombrosa. Language courses are offered for beginners and advanced students. In addition there are cultural courses in Italian literature, history of art and political history. Lectures on art are supplemented by visits to the museums and galleries of the city.

Winter session from December 1, 1934 to February 28, 1935. Courses in Italian language, literature, history, history of art, modern Italy, history of Florence, and elective courses in sculpture, painting, and music.

Ravenna. Spring session from April 27 to May 10, 1935. Lectures on the history, literature, art, and religion of Byzantine society. Ravenna is one of the greatest centers of learning in the field of Byzantine history and art.

Rome. Spring session from April 28 to May 25, 1935. Lectures, visits and excursions to illustrate the capital of Italy, and the entire Latin and Catholic world. In addition to lectures on present-day Italy by prominent authorities, the program includes courses on language, archeology, history of art, architecture in Rome and Latium from the XI to the XIV centuries.

Summer session divided into two periods. The first extends from July 4 to July 30, 1935, offering courses in archeology and history of ancient art, history of Christianity, history of Italy, history of Italian literature, the Italian language. The second extends from August 1 to August 28, 1935, and offers courses on the history of Medieval art and the Renaissance, the leaders of art in the XVI century, history of Italy, history of Italian literature, the Italian language.

Siena. The nineteenth summer session extends from July 14 to September 1, 1935. Special attention is given to the teaching of the Italian language. There is a special school of pronunciation, a preparatory grammar course, an elementary and an advanced language course, as well as a conversation class. These language courses are supplemented by advanced courses in literature, art, criticism and

aesthetics, political history and philosophy. During the session there are art exhibitions, concerts, the traditional festival of the Palio, visits to monuments, museums, libraries and archives, and excursions to places of interest.

Venice. The session extends from September 1 to September 29, 1935. There are art courses taught by distinguished professors. Visits to monuments and to the principal art collections form a part of the course. There are also special courses on Venetian painting, Venetian architecture, the history of art, history, the Italian language and literature, Venetian history, the literature of new Italy.

Royal University for Foreigners of Perugia

The Royal University for Foreigners of Perugia was established by the Royal decree law of October 25, 1925, No. 1965, with the object of spreading a more accurate and thorough knowledge of Italy in both its past and present aspects. It is located in the city of Perugia in the buildings of the Royal University of Perugia. The Royal decree of March 25, 1926, No. 680, approved the constitution of the university and the agreement between the State and other associations for its maintenance. The session which extends from July 1 to September 30, 1935, offers higher culture courses on history, literature, art, politics, and scientific thought of the XVIII century and present-day Italy, "Lectura Dantis," theoretical and practical courses in Etruscology, and courses in the language, history and geography of Italy. The language and literature courses are divided into three sections: elementary, intermediate, and advanced. Students who complete the intermediate course obtain a certificate of proficiency in the Italian language; those who complete the advanced course receive the qualifying diploma for the teaching of the Italian language in foreign countries. The cultural courses are taught by the professors and private docents of the universities and higher institutes of Italy, and by other prominent authorities. The language courses are taught by the best qualified secondary school teachers.

The university is maintained by contributions from the State, province and commune, and by student fees.

The university is administered by a rector and an administrative council.

Foreign students, without distinction of sex or age, are admitted

to the university without being required to present academic or school records; Italians residing in Italy are required to present a diploma from a higher grade secondary school.

Centers of Information

A national center of university information for foreign students and for Italian students abroad has been founded in Rome under the auspices of the National Committee for Intellectual Cooperation. The aim of the center is to offer free assistance and facilities to foreign students who wish to study at Italian institutions of higher learning. The address is Centro Italiano Informazioni Universitarie, Salita del Grillo, 1, Rome.

American Educational Centers

The following information concerning American educational centers and fellowships available will be of interest to those who propose to study in Italy.

The Library for American Studies in Rome, located at 271 Corso Umberto I, is a free public library whose primary purpose is to provide authoritative information upon all phases of national development in the United States. It also contains a representative collection of books which is at the disposal of those Americans in Rome who wish to study the institutions and the development of modern Italy.

At the same address is a branch of the Italy America Society whose headquarters are located at the Waldorf-Astoria Hotel, New York City. This Society exists for the promotion of cultural relations between Italy and America. Among other things, it awards through the Trustees of Columbia University the Eleonora Duse Fellowship to students of either sex, born in the United States or in Canada, who have definite plans for research work in an Italian university. The amount of the fellowship is \$1,200 for one year.

The American Academy of Rome, housed in a beautiful group of buildings on the Janiculum (Via Angelo Masina), awards fellowships to citizens of the United States who have certain qualifications. The amount of these fellowships, which are awarded on the basis of a competition, varies from \$1,000 to \$1,350. These fellowships are

awarded for a variety of subjects: architecture, landscape, mural painting, painting, sculpture, classical studies, and musical composition.

In Florence, there is the American Office for Education and Intellectual Cooperation located at 1, Via dei Corsi. This office forms a center for exchange and distribution of information on educational matters of interest to Italy and the United States.

The Casa Italiana of Columbia University, New York City, is equipped to give information and advice to American students who wish to study in Italy, and to students from Italy who wish to pursue studies in American colleges and universities. The Casa Italiana has become the clearing house for information concerning Italian educational institutions.

Several other fellowships are offered for study in Italy as well as a few unrestricted grants which may be used for this purpose. During the last few years the Ministry of National Education has awarded a certain number of teaching posts in Italian secondary schools. The choice of the candidates for these posts and of the exchange fellows between American colleges and Italian universities is made in America by the Institute of International Education. Information regarding them may be obtained by applying to the Institute of International Education, 2 West 45th Street, New York City, or to the Casa Italiana, Columbia University, New York City.

CHAPTER X

THE GENTILE REFORM UNDER CRITICISM

Interpretation of the Reform

The reform of Gentile has now been under way more than thirteen years. No other reform of the Fascist Government has aroused so many and diverse criticisms as has this one, which met from the very start with wide spread opposition especially among those who had been unfavorably affected by the changes it sought to introduce in the Italian educational system. In its early days the reform was attacked especially by publishers who had been compelled to discard books already in print; by students who were found unfit for certain types of studies and who, therefore, were unable to secure a long-cherished diploma; by teachers who were called upon to give a strict account of their work; and finally by all those who were compelled to work much harder than they had been accustomed to under the old régime. But these "defects" were the result of a new system which arose and destroyed the old—they were inevitable. Yet the only method of testing the efficacy of the reform is by comparing the old with the new organization to see whether the latter answers the new concept of education, and the national ideals of Italy.

While it is true that the changes introduced by Gentile have been severely criticized, yet very few, if any, have ventured to pass an adverse judgment on the spirit of the reform. The most common criticisms heard in connection with the programs of studies of the elementary and secondary schools are that too much time is spent on a particular writer, that many teachers are unable to conduct their classes effectively, that there are no text-books for this or that subject. But the fact remains, and this is admitted by the critics, that the programs of the elementary and secondary schools aim at vitalizing the school, and at the ennoblement of the culture of students and teachers. Ma-

riano Maresca, Professor of Pedagogy of the Faculty of Letters and Philosophy of the University of Pavia, for example, was opposed to the elementary school reform, yet in an article published in April 1924, he defended the philosophic principles of idealism in the present system of education. While he favored the reform of secondary schools and higher institutions, he was opposed to the changes introduced in elementary education because here the aims were not only different, but diametrically opposed to the other reforms. He pointed out that while the secondary school reform dealt with the program of studies and the combination of courses all aiming to uplift the ideals of students, the elementary school reform, on the other hand, conflicted with the very content of elementary instruction. Professor Maresca was opposed to religious instruction because he believed that it divorced religion from life, and created an antimony between religious dogmatism and the critical mind.

Another early critic of the Gentile reform was Achille Monti who, in a series of articles published in 1923, gave his reasons for his opposition. In the first article entitled "Liberal Prejudices," Monti attacked the reform on account of its anti-liberalism and sectarianism, and condemned the Fascist conception of State. In the second article the author compared the reform outlined by Croce as Minister of Public Instruction with the Gentile reform. Monti endeavoured to show that the two were essentially different and that Croce's was much more valuable than Gentile's. He remarked: "Croce's reform was truly liberal, Gentile's is anti-liberal and Fascist." Yet in a previous chapter we have seen that Croce's reform was in perfect unison with Gentile's philosophy. After all, in order to remove all doubts it is sufficient to recall Croce's letter to the *Giornale d'Italia* in which he defended Gentile's reforms. The changes introduced by Gentile are the logical result of the new conception of Italian culture. The Gentile reform does not, as Monti stated, overlook the historical reality of the school and impose extrinsically an abstract law to concrete life, but, on the contrary, it aims to bring about a nobler realization of this concrete life. What may be called anti-historical is the former school organization which stifled the life of the school and divorced it more and more from the realities of life. The Gentile reform would have been anti-liberal if it had retained the former organization in spite of its glaring and recognized defects. And the proof of this is the statement of numerous teachers and professors to the effect that they

had already introduced in their teaching certain features of the Gentile reform, but that they had been handicapped by the numerous and insurmountable obstacles of the old regulations. To have removed these obstacles, therefore, is the most liberal work that Gentile could have accomplished as Minister.

In the third article Monti attacked the organization of the reform. "When we say the Gentile reform," he explained, "we refer to the reform of the secondary school, which constitutes the most essential part of the work of the Fascist Minister of Public Instruction." Monti attacked Gentile for favoring the classical schools, which he described as being the institutions for the wealthy, at the expense of the technical institutes which were attended by students from the middle class. He argued that if in the interest of economy it were necessary to reduce the number of schools, all types of institutions should have been proportionately reduced. The Fascist Government should have favored the schools for the poor, and not the institutions for the rich classes. Yet Gentile has done just this. The reforms aim at limiting the enrolment in schools for the children of the rich, while the enrolment is unlimited in the vocational, commercial, and art schools.

The Gentile reform met with bitter and stubborn opposition in the Italian Senate at its session of February 3, 1925, in connection with a discussion on the budget of the Ministry of Public Instruction for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1925. The organization of the central and regional administrations was attacked by senators Ettore Pais, Emeritus Professor of the University of Rome, and Luigi Credaro, also of the University of Rome. The former assailed the regional distribution of supervisors; the latter attacked not only this point but also the reduction of the central inspectors and the suppression of the secondary regional inspectors. It was stated that the reduction of the supervisors from provincial to regional lines had brought about a serious gap because of a greater concentration of power in certain individuals. With reference to the reduction of the central inspectors and the suppression of regional inspectors Gentile in his reply before the Senate said: "I am convinced, like many others, that the school is a spiritual individuality, that the school should not be subject to foreign and indiscreet interference, that in the school the pupil must be with the instructor and the instructor with his pupil in an intimate life, a life which should not be subject to the suspicion of judges who suddenly come in from the outside. Both instructors and principals fully secure

this individuality which must free itself from all interferences, which cannot but arrest and disturb this life."

With reference to secondary education, several senators attacked the combination of courses, programs, and State examinations. There was some difference of opinion concerning the grouping of various subjects. Senator Nino Tamassia, Professor of the Royal University of Padua, said that it was unfair to compel an instructor to teach more than one subject. Senator Pais added that the grouping of courses was an absurdity, arguing that it is a mistake to combine such courses as history and philosophy because "history searches and examines facts, whereas philosophy, which often loses itself in abstraction, is based on fixed principles and judges facts according to belief." Senator Francesco Torraca, Professor Emeritus of the Royal University of Naples, said that it was unfair to compel a teacher to teach any other subject besides that for which he secured the appointment at the time of the competitive examination. Senator Girolamo Vitelli, Professor Emeritus of the University of Florence, on the other hand, spoke favorably of the grouping of the various subjects, and suggested the combination of mathematics and physics. Senator Antonio Scialoja, Dean of the Royal University of Naples, also believed that subjects should be grouped, but suggested that "they should not be grouped mechanically, but that each case should be examined separately."

A great deal has been said in Italian educational circles concerning the grouping of subjects. Even before the Gentile reform various subjects were combined in the lower and higher courses of the gymnasium. To have introduced this system then in all first grade schools, and to a certain extent in the schools of the second grade, merely confirms the statement made by Senator Vitelli to the effect that the "didactic ability of the teacher should and must be more exhaustive than his scientific ability." The objection to the combination of courses seems to be voiced largely by those teachers who are not particularly anxious to do any considerable work. But the reform is attempting to drive these teachers away from the schools.

The courses of study of secondary schools were also seriously attacked. Senator Tamassia defined them as "suffering from ideals," and prepared by one "who has not had any experience in the school." Senator Vincenzo Morello stated that they were "apparently in need of revision." The programs have, in fact, been modified, but it must be understood that whatever faults the programs contained

were due not to their amplitude or to their inspiration, but to their determination.

The State license examination was also attacked. Senator Tamassia while admitting that the State examination is "an excellent means for obtaining a positive test of the preparation of the student," was somewhat skeptical of this cry of "sincerity." Senator Vitelli was more specific in his remarks. He had noted the efficacy of the State examination, but did not believe that professors should be excluded from examining commissions in cases where they had personally instructed the students.

Various senators attacked the provision limiting the number of students in secondary schools. They referred to the "privileged students" and in doing so they merely repeated the objections raised by the opposition newspapers. The secondary school is not closed to any social group. It is closed only to careless and carefree students, regardless of whether they are rich or poor. The secondary school is not and should not be opened to everybody, but is and should be opened to use an appropriate expression of Senator Luigi Montresor, "to all those who are gifted mentally and are willing to work." From this point of view, the reform is indeed liberal if by liberalism we mean not individual liberalism, but Gentilian liberalism which subordinates the individual to the State.

Forty-seven senators all connected with various university faculties took advantage of the opportunity to attack that phase of the Gentile reform dealing with the organization of higher studies, maintaining that while in theory the reform created university autonomy, in reality it destroyed the former traditional liberty enjoyed by the universities. It was said that the old régime had been in force for seventy years and had given good results. After a year's trial of the Gentile reform, the general criticism was that the economic difficulties of life had been especially severe among the Italian middle class, and that the Gentile reform by rendering higher education more difficult and the institutions more costly, had increased the burdens of this class, insofar as it cost more money to give children a higher education. Everyone recognized the abstract merits of the reform; its noble aims to elevate the status of culture and to establish a more rigorous selection of professors. But it was believed that the present was not the most appropriate time to put it into effect. The middle class, they said, should have been given time to re-establish its fortunes and find new

outlets for its industrial and commercial activities.

However, the Fascist educational reforms have been highly praised by many prominent educators. After reviewing the spirit of Gentile's reforms, Attilio Momigliano, Professor of Italian Literature at the University of Florence, believed that the recent programs had given the schools a new spirit of unity. National education, he declared, has almost attained its own individuality. This alone should silence forever the censures of those critics who constantly disagree. "If all will do their part," he concluded with emphasis, "we will have a national school—a school that, from the very first elementary step to the door of the university, shall give the most basic and solid results."

Professor Gino Rebori of the Royal Engineering School of Milan is also very enthusiastic over the Gentile reforms. He believes that in recasting her whole system of education, Italy is attempting to develop a new spirit of progress in the school, and to create a stronger educational conscience in the public at large. He finds many serious defects in the pre-Fascist school system. These defects, he says, were spiritual more than technical and administrative, and this because the intellectual, ethical, humane, aesthetic, and religious aspects of education were shamefully neglected. In correcting these defects, Professor Rebori maintains, the Gentile reform certainly has made a great step forward in the educational progress of Italy.

Senator Vittorio Cian of the University of Turin, in an interesting study deplores the corruption which existed in the educational system of Italy before Fascism. He contrasted it with the noble ideals of the Gentile reforms. Professor Cian is especially impressed with the new and increased interest shown everywhere in Italy in educational matters, and in problems affecting the school. He concludes that never has there been shown such a passionate desire for the betterment of education.

The criticism voiced by foreign observers on the Fascist educational reforms is based largely on the super-patriotism emphasized in the school, which they consider a dangerous asset. Yet many of their statements regarding the teaching of patriotism and civic training in the schools of Italy may be applied with greater force to other countries, especially France, the United States, and Japan. The conditions they deplore do not exist only in Italy. The fundamental point to be borne in mind is that education in all civilized countries is closely related to the economic, social, and political conditions of a country,

and that any statesman who proposes to build an efficient, prosperous and patriotic nation must enlist the cooperation of the schools in his efforts, and utilize them to effect his aims. This maxim is as true of Italy as it is true of all civilized countries.

There is no nationalistic or chauvinistic emphasis in the Italian schools. Their aim is national rather than nationalistic. This statement was vigorously brought out in an article by Professor I. L. Kandel of Columbia University, who has made extensive surveys of European school systems. He states that he did not see any special nationalist emphasis when he visited the schools in Italy in 1928.

Other foreign observers have criticized the present system of education in Italy because, they say, it is too standardized and stereotyped. Others have completely misinterpreted the spirit of the teaching imparted in the schools. They have stated, for example, that individualism is "reprehensible" and that the child "is never required to make any decisions according to his conscience." Nevertheless, the instructions issued by the Minister of National Education definitely state that the programs of studies in the elementary schools are only suggestions for the guidance of teachers, who are free to adapt them to the varying local requirements. In fact, throughout the elementary school course the child is constantly encouraged to do things for himself, to work out his own thoughts, and in this manner gradually to mould an independent personality quite distinct from that of his fellow pupils. The result is that he goes out into the world with well-formed habits of initiative and independence, not merely in possession of the tools of knowledge, but also and above all with a clear understanding of his attainments and with the confidence of one who knows his own powers and limitations, and consequently his own place in the world.

The major portion of the curriculum is devoted to the cultivation of spontaneous expression in singing, games, drawing, and composition. The absurdity of the statement made by some foreign critics that "love for and interest in nature are in no way stimulated, nor is there any emphasis on kind or charitable sentiments," becomes evident when it is recalled that religious instruction is made the fundamental object of the system of public instruction. Nature study, too, is included in the school programs, and the textbooks are filled with drawings from nature. In fact, subjects nearest to child nature and those most suitable to the development of his mind are given first place in the curriculum.

There is nothing in the curriculum of the Italian schools which tends to make the people "supremely ambitious" for war or encourages "distrust and hatred" for other nations.

The true spirit of the *Balilla* movement has often been misinterpreted by foreign observers. It has already been shown that this organization conducts intellectual propaganda, and all those extra-school activities which in America and in other countries are provided through the Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, the continuation schools, adult education, vocational education, and so forth. It conducts visits and excursions to the museums and monuments of the country; it awards prizes and scholarships; it organizes cruises; it maintains summer Camps; and, last but not least, it promotes physical education and athletic activities. Only since the advent of Fascism has the school in Italy attempted to develop the child physically as well as mentally. Professor Gentile has stated that a complete and perfect system of education should aim not only at the development of the spirit but of the body as well.

The oath of allegiance which university professors are required to take has horrified many foreign observers. But all civil servants in Italy are required to take the oath of allegiance, and since the universities are under the State, it is only natural that professors, in their capacity of public servants, should be required to take it too. Professors of private universities in Italy have not been required to comply with this formality, but they have spontaneously requested to take the oath. It is noteworthy that of about 1,200 professors who are civil servants only eleven declined to do so! Incidentally it may be well to note that this is not the first time that Italian public officials have been required to take an oath of allegiance. It was required by certain laws that were in force under liberal but inefficient parliamentary governments, and it was discontinued, only to be resumed again in November 1908.

Gentile's Resignation and Later Developments

Gentile resigned from the Ministry of Public Instruction after holding that office for twenty months. Though his critics attributed his resignation to the widespread opposition to his reforms, it was definitely and positively asserted by high government officials that the reasons for his resignation were independent of the school reform.

Gentile is acclaimed the philosopher of Fascism, and by virtue of his character he doubtless has been in a better position to uphold the ideals of Fascism in private life. He deemed it his duty to return to the teaching profession where he could prepare the coming generation to value and interpret properly the political doctrine of Fascism. Gentile left his office with the knowledge that he had instilled new vigor and energy into the school; he left an administration which, with a greatly reduced personnel, and with only nineteen supervisors, continued his work *ab imis*.

Soon after his resignation Gentile was made chairman of a Constitutional Commission which made a thorough study of the fundamental question of government organization. The recommendations of this Commission played an important rôle in sanctioning the changes, and also in working out the reforms basic to the "corporate state", the ideal toward which the organization of the country as a whole has tended.

There have been six ministers of education since the resignation of Gentile, as follows: Alessandro Casati (July 2, 1924 to January 5, 1925), Pietro Fedele (January 6, 1925 to July 9, 1928), Giuseppe Belluzzo (July 10, 1928 to September 11, 1929), Balbino Giuliano (September 12, 1929 to July 19, 1932), Francesco Ercole (July 20, 1932 to January 23, 1935), and Cesare M. de Vecchi di Val Cismon (January 24, 1935-). With one or two exceptions the successors of Gentile have been sympathetic to the spirit of his reform. Casati who, as vice-president of the Higher Council of Public Instruction, had the opportunity to view closely the work of Gentile, stated that even if he were opposed to the reform, he could not destroy all that had already been accomplished. Furthermore, he made clear that the reform was not the outcome of a political moment, but the result of twenty years of discussions in educational circles. The difficulties, if any, were due to its scope, to the short time in which it had been in force, and to the complexity of the political moment in which the reform was carried out. It was evident that even those who were opposed to the reform recognized that one of the great needs of the country was the introduction of a severe and strict discipline in the school. With reference to elementary education no improvements were suggested, although some minor changes were considered in secondary education especially concerning the teaching personnel and the financial organization of the schools. Casati devoted all his efforts

to solving the problem of pensions for elementary school teachers and improving the salaries of secondary school instructors.

All ministers, even those who have been unfriendly to the reform, have made it perfectly clear that complete reversion to the previous system cannot be expected. The fact that the chief value of the Gentile reform has been entirely from within, from the spirit, explains the many wavering and repeated attempts at returns to the past—attempts which have been repeatedly deplored by all real educators. It is indeed regrettable that some ministers of education and other school authorities have not always elevated themselves to the height of the concept which had suggested the reform of methods and educational institutions. However, as already pointed out elsewhere in this study, the activities of the Ministers of Education since Gentile have been developed along the following lines:

1. The preparation of an elementary school text-book that is unique for the purpose of educating the adolescent in the new atmosphere created by Fascism and developing keen consciousness concerning:

- a) what the Italian people have been and claim to have been in history.

- b) Their contribution in discoveries, in inventions, and in the patrimony of knowledge, art, and civilization, to all peoples.

- c) The beauty and revitalization of Italy.

- d) The part played by Italians scattered over the earth in the productive activity of the various nations.

2. The increase in the amount of religious instruction imparted, in the hope of bringing the schools into somewhat closer relations with the Church.

3. The increase in the amount of instruction in hygiene, so as to give better medical care to pupils, and to study school buildings with more emphasis on their hygienic character. A committee composed of hygienic and pedagogic experts was appointed to make a careful investigation in this field.

4. The coordination and strengthening of vocational education forming an end in itself and preparing technical men for agriculture, industry, and commerce, and stimulating initiatives of a syndical character in the field of instruction of the workers and the farmer. To this end the continuation school programs have been unified, giving them a special profes-

sional, artistic, industrial, agricultural, or commercial character, depending on the predominant activity in the province or municipality where located. Technical institutes have gradually been transformed into vocational, industrial, agricultural, or commercial, nautical, and surveying schools of the corresponding grade where such did not already exist.

5. In the classical and scientific lyceums which prepare students for universities and higher institutes, certain subjects have been unified, strengthened, and developed.
6. The problem of the needs of government universities and higher institutes with respect to the activities of each locality have been reconsidered, with a view to reducing the work of the smaller institutions, especially those which do not meet local requirements. On the other hand, the activities of those faculties that meet the needs of science, production, and the liberal professions have been developed.
7. Scientific laboratories connected with the universities and higher institutes have been given a special aim, in accordance with the program of the investigating committee; the economic and legal status of the regular personnel in these laboratories have been fixed and improved.
8. Many special subjects now taught in new professorships in universities and higher institutes have been restored to the basic courses of instruction, though extended and strengthened.
9. The laws covering archeological discoveries have been amended, giving adequate encouragement to investigators and rewarding them for discoveries made.
10. Pensions of school teachers have been increased.

In conclusion, the Gentile reform is strictly Italian, for it does not favor any party. Gentile was a Fascist during his tenure of office, but he was always an educator. All his work as Minister was superior to any party spirit. Besides, some of the ablest collaborators of Gentile, such as Lombardo-Radice, were not Fascists. The Fascist Congress held in Naples in 1922 voted against the State examinations. What is meant by the statement that the Gentile reform is Fascist is the fact that it is something in which the Government has taken a great deal of pride and has, therefore, accepted and enforced it. Gen-

tile in a speech said "there is a kind of politics which must not contaminate the school, as it must not contaminate religion, science, art, and in fact, it must not contaminate man in general: that is the cheap politics of selfish interests, factions, egoists, narrow-minded individuals who, as a rule, are persons who do not visualize nor wish to see the Nation as a State." But there is another kind of politics which the Government wishes to introduce into the school and that is "national politics, the creative will of national life."

The movement is still vigorous and working for a further embodiment of the idealistic philosophy of Gentile. The combination between Fascism and the Gentile reform shows no signs of abatement at this time; it is stronger than ever. There can be no question that there is far greater energy and vitality pervading Italian education today than for decades before. From the primary school through the university, the lesson impressed upon pupils and students is the necessity of unquestioning loyalty and devotion to the country and support for those policies that will enhance the prestige of the State abroad as well as its internal well-being. Well may Mussolini describe Gentile's reforms as "the most Fascist of all the Fascist reforms."

CHAPTER XI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In 1923 Fascist Italy initiated a school reform of vast importance. The World War had stimulated a keener appreciation than had before existed of the importance of education for national welfare. The strides made in organization have been great, and the spread of knowledge has been more rapid and more extensive than before the Gentile reform. But the advances actually made so far are mainly in outlook and organization; until the financial stress of the time passes and freer provisions of public funds become practicable, the full advantages of what has been accomplished can hardly be reaped.

The national life of a people is embodied in its educational system. The schooling and the apprenticeship which it evolves for the training and discipline of its youth reflect the nation's ideals and aspirations, its aims and beliefs. By looking into a system of learning under which a student grows from childhood to maturity, we discover the material from which his thought is fed, the purposes and relative values which his mind is trained to accept. The ideal education is a continuous development, building-up the firm chain of succession and sequence, the strength of united purpose and action, and the value and importance of combination. Where national life is normal and consistent we find educational methods correspondingly continuous and natural, expressing as well as forming the temper of the people. Accepting this view of education as a national function, we recognize that the principles of education must be constantly challenged, its practise constantly revised, according to the changing demands of the times. The lessons of recent experience have emphasized this necessity for vigilance; and the problems of education must be faced with equal regard for the needs of individual self-government, of vocational efficiency, and of national service. It is for this reason that the work of reconstruction which has been going on in

Italy under the impulse of the Fascist Government could not be limited to the economic, social, financial, military and bureaucratic factors; it was also necessary to involve the moral and educational life of the nation, without which any radical reform would have remained ineffectual and at most of temporary value.

The pre-Gentile school lacked leadership. Students had no clear conception of their duties, professors did not fully appreciate their responsibilities, teachers were unprepared for their glorious tasks. The school as organized by Gentile aims to educate the whole man: the physical, the social, the aesthetic, the religious, the intellectual aspects, each in a manner appropriate to it. Religious instruction is compulsory in the schools. As the physical individuality of the child develops into consciousness, his conative and mental capacity develops with it. Freedom of choice gives him new activities. These activities are the outcome of his self-directing energies and they have values which vary. What education has to do is to bring into his consciousness ever-increasing interests and values. The child has to be guided in the fashioning of his experience, and must be led to the most valuable forms of activity in fashioning it. His tendencies in conation are thus set in higher directions, and his experience is enriched by the new memories which influence his choices. The ideas that often seemed most attractive are thus to be refashioned in the earliest form of school. The meaning of the things about him are expanded and connected together. The original attitude toward events is modified and further experience creates new dispositions. Here the teacher has his opportunities. The teacher must influence the environment and so direct development under his influence. The influence of his own personality counts for much, even in the infant school, and the mental and moral example he sets certainly counts for no less in the subsequent stages of education. The old psychological notions were insufficient insofar as they treated knowledge as a merely passive interpretation of external experience. We have learned that knowledge is an activity which changes even that experience for him who possesses it, and that it therefore requires adequate stimulus from within and direction from without. The giving of these is the work of the teacher throughout his whole career, and it depends primarily on his developed personality as well as on the individuality of his pupil. The school is the environment in which he works and the influence which he directs. "The originality of the Gentile reform," as pointed out by Professor

Cadignola, "consists in having liberated the training of teachers from all the heterogeneous and encumbering superpositions; in having led the elementary school back to its natural function, and in having given teachers the real meaning of the task which is entrusted to them by Society."

Gentile warns that if the school cannot shape men it "should at least rough-hew them and give them a conscience, whereas now it teaches but often does not educate; it gives to the learner the means of culture, and then abandons him to his own resources." Teachers, according to Gentile, should "learn to react against a system of education which, conceiving its rôle to be merely intellectualistic and such as to make of the human spirit a clear mirror of things, proceeds to an infinite subdivision to match the infinite multiplicity of things. Unity ought to be our constant aim. We should never look away from the living, that is, the person, the pupil into whose soul our loving solicitude should arrive to gain access in order to help create his own world."

The chief value of the reform lies not in changes of structure and in articles of law, but rather in the new spirit which it has instilled and aroused in the schools. A school reform is efficacious only if it succeeds in transforming the soul. For this reason, it cannot be the work of a day or the task of a single man. The Gentile reform has been efficacious only because the underlying principles of education and culture have become the intimate conviction and new faith of Italian teachers.

As a direct result of the reform, Italy is well on the way toward solving her illiteracy problem. The rural schools are now being attended by the children of school age, and suitable measures are being taken to bring about the attendance of every child at school. Through Gentile's efforts, the educational budget of Italy has been increased by several hundred million lire, and this in spite of the economic measures of Mussolini who, however, also wants money spent liberally for public education. Already one-third more money is being spent on schools than was spent before the War. "We cannot afford to save on schools," Mussolini advises, "particularly the country schools so long neglected."

In secondary institutes the ordinary text-book has been discarded and has been replaced by the study of the classics—Homer, Virgil and others. The modern Italian poets and prose writers—the moulders

of national consciousness—Parini, Alfieri, Manzoni, Carducci, are also studied. It has been suggested that the programs are overcrowded with philosophy and the classics, while scientific subjects could be strengthened. Certain changes have been made, but the great spirit of the reform with its fundamental characteristics cannot and will not be altered. A system of education must not be condemned for defects which can be remedied only by experience.

Among other problems which have been studied and solved by the Government are:

- (1) To coordinate and reenforce trades in all vocational courses.
- (2) To unify, strengthen and extend the branch of learning to those contemplating the adoption of a technic-scientific career.
- (3) To reexamine all problems concerning royal universities and higher institutes.
- (4) To specialize all scientific laboratories annexed to universities and higher institutes in order that they may harmonize with the studies in progress.
- (5) To recall various instructions on special subjects, especially those recently created.
- (6) To revise the legislation pertaining to archeology and to encourage research by suitable rewards.
- (7) To improve the programs in all schools.

The Italian government is definitely headed in the direction of putting an end to old abuses and backward conditions of long standing. Educationally, Italy had frittered itself away trying to keep up a brood of universities, instead of supporting a few of the really strong centers of education which she undoubtedly has. Mussolini has taken the important step of cutting off from the State exchequer a number of minor universities, and in this he had the full support of the government machinery. Another interesting feature of the recent changes is the strong desire to establish fellowships. The impelling motive here is perhaps more that of getting foreign students to Italy than the other way around. Italy has vigorous scientific traditions, and perhaps also a number of eminent men who may do good work when the Government concentrates its efforts on providing adequate facilities at a few strong university centers. The privilege of awarding professional titles is reserved to the State, and universities merely award degrees.

The Gentile reform has already yielded a generous harvest. Its full results are still forthcoming, despite the attempts made by one or two of his successors to destroy the changes he had introduced. The forward movement is not yet at an end. Fascism is the exaltation and ennoblement of all the elements concurring to form and assure the greatness of Italy—and the problem of its greatness is, above all, a problem of education and culture.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ORGANIZATION OF THE MINISTRY OF NATIONAL EDUCATION

Minister Secretary of State for National Education
Under-Secretary of State for National Education
Cabinet of His Excellency the Minister
Office of H. E. the Under-Secretary of State for National Education
Administrative Council of the Ministry
Disciplinary Commission for Personnel
Administrative Council for Subordinate Personnel
Higher Council of National Education
 Section I: Higher Education
 Section II: Classical, scientific, and normal high schools and educational institutes
 Section III: Technical high schools
 Section IV: Elementary education
 Section V: Art education
 Section VI: Nautical education
Higher Council of Antiquities and Fine Arts
 Section I: Archeology
 Section II: Medieval and modern art
 Section III: Contemporary art
 Section IV: Musical and dramatic arts
Central Board for Historical Studies
Advisory Board for the Preservation of Natural Beauty
Central Library Commission
Commission on Appeals and Disciplinary Trials of High School Teachers
 Section I: For the personnel of classical, scientific and normal schools, and of educational institutes
 Section II: For the personnel of technical high schools
Commission on Appeals of Elementary School Teachers.

DEPARTMENT OF ACADEMIES, LIBRARIES AND PERSONNEL AFFAIRS

General Director
Administrative Inspectors

Bibliographical Inspector

Educational Supervisor (at the disposal of the General Administration with supervisory functions)

DIVISION I: General matters—Higher Council of National Education—Personnel of the Central Administration and of the Educational Supervisors—Administration of the Ministry and of the Bureaus of Educational Supervisors.

Section I: General matters concerning the personnel of the Ministry and its subordinate divisions—Higher Council of National Education—Permanent personnel of the Central Administration — Special and new personnel — Administrative Councils and Disciplinary Commissions — Pension services—Rolls of seniority—Conferring of diplomas on those who rendered special services to education in the Kingdom—Subsidies to employees in the active service of the Central Administration—Subsidies to employees and teachers formerly connected with the Administration of National Education and to their families—Matriculation.

Section II: Bureaus of Educational Supervisors—Permanent, special, and new personnel—Transfers—Buildings, furnishings, office expenses—Subsidies to employees in the active service of the Bureaus of Educational Supervisors.

Section III: General administrative affairs—Buildings, furnishings and office expenses of the Central Administration — Government contracts—Contract services—Trials before the ordinary courts—Scientific and cultural congresses —Year-book of the Ministry—Editing of the *Official Bulletin*—Services connected with the Library of the Ministry—Boarding school for the orphans of Italian physicians in Perugia—Railroad concessions and controversies relating thereto—Postal and telegraph exemptions—General protocols and correspondence—Storage—Archives—Typography.

DIVISION II: Academies—Scientific and literary institutes and societies—Italian historical societies and deputations.

Section I: Central Library Commission — Affairs concerning intellectual cooperation and other cultural relations — Spread of Italian books abroad — Expositions and bibliographical congresses — Statistics.

Section II: Royal Italian Academy—Scientific and literary academies, institutes, and societies—Italian historical socie-

ties and deputations—Granting of pensions and other academic allowances—Ministerial prizes—National editions — Incentives for publications — Permanent personnel of academies and scientific and literary bodies —Bookkeeping. ..

DIVISION III: Libraries.

Section I: Personnel of royal bibliographical supervisory boards and public libraries—Appointment of the members of the Central Library Commission, of the Provincial Committees for Bibliographical Supervision of Supervisory Boards, of the honorary Royal Bibliographical Supervisors—National Center of Bibliographical information — Commission for the Publication of the Indices and Catalogues of Italian Libraries.

Section II: Organization and functions of the public libraries—Buildings, maintenance and furnishings — Acquisition and conservation of bibliographical material — Gifts and legacies—Estimates and final budgets—Supervision of private libraries and their functioning — Restoration and reproduction of bibliographical material—International loans.

SPECIAL OFFICE FOR POPULAR AND SCHOOL LIBRARIES

Organization and functioning of popular libraries.

Appointments of honorary supervisors for popular libraries.

Association for Popular and School Libraries.

DEPARTMENT OF ANTIQUITIES AND FINE ARTS

DIVISION I: General affairs — Personnel in charge of monuments, museums, galleries, and excavations of antiquity — Permanent commissions — Inspection services—Legislative studies—Controversies—Foundations—Protection of natural beauty—Catalogue of monuments and objects of antiquity and art—Palaces and villas belonging to the Crown and turned over to the State—Admission fees to monuments, museums, galleries, and excavations of antiquity.

Section I: General matters—Higher Council of Antiquities and Fine Arts — Inspection services — Permanent personnel in charge of monuments, museums, galleries, and excavations of antiquity, and of the National Photographic Studio— Salaried personnel—Conservation commissions

of monuments and works of antiquity and art—Honorary inspectors—Honorary conservators—Contracts for the custody and maintenance of monumental buildings—Admission fees of monuments, museums, galleries and excavations of antiquity.

Section II: Controversies—Legislative studies—Foundations—Catalogue of monuments and works of antiquity and art—Conservation of natural beauty—Palaces and villas formerly owned by the Crown and turned over to the State.

DIVISION II: Conservation of artistic, historical, archeological and paleontological patrimony.

Section I: Conservation of the archeological and paleontological patrimony—Excavations—Conservation and restoration of ancient monuments—Archeological museums—Missions and archeological institutes abroad.

Section II: Conservation of medieval and modern monumental estates—Restorations—Administration of monumental edifices entrusted to the Department.

Section III: Conservation of medieval and modern objects of art—Restorations—Medieval and modern museums—Art galleries—Royal office for the exportation of objects of Art and Antiquity.

DIVISION III: Art instruction—Art pensioners—National Gallery of Modern Art—Royal chalcography—Royal mill for hard stones—Contemporary art—Instruction in art and music—Expositions—Theaters—Concerts—Authors' rights.

Section I: Organization, administration and personnel of Royal Art Institutes and Schools—Institutes and schools for industrial arts—Private institutes for the teaching of industrial arts—Institutes and chartered associations connected with industrial art production.

Section II: Organization and administration of the personnel of the Royal academies of fine arts and art lyceums, of the Royal conservatories of music, etc.—Private institutes and recognized associations having similar or related aims—National Art Pensioners—Royal National Gallery of Modern Art in Rome—Expositions—Theaters—Concerts.—Institutions and projects connected with lyric and dramatic arts—Author's rights—Matters concerning contemporary art and general artistic instruction.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

DIVISION I: General Matters—Personnel of the institutes of higher education (universities, higher institutes of engineering, higher institutes of architecture, higher normal institutes, higher institutes of agriculture and of veterinary medicine, higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences, special higher institutes) — Miscellaneous personnel.

Section I: General matters—Personnel of the Department—Assistant personnel of the institutes of higher education—Technical and subordinate personnel—Personnel of the National Research Council and of the Royal Institute of Archeology and History of Art — Personnel of the schools of obstetrics.

Section II: Administrative councils, rectors and directors of institutes of higher education—Deans of faculties and schools — Permanent and adjunct professors — Exchange of university professors with foreign countries—Personnel of the Royal Astronomical and Vesuvian Observatories.

DIVISION II: Administration of universities and higher institutes — Budgets and reports — Supervision over administrative work—University buildings — General organization of university studies—Agreements—Associations — Special awards— Supervision over educational and scientific activities of clinics and laboratories.

Section I: Administration of ordinary and extraordinary funds—Supervision over the administrative and bookkeeping services—Examination of budgets and reports—University buildings — Contracts — Disputes — Educational and scientific equipment of clinics and laboratories.

Section II: General arrangement of university studies — Statutes — Agreements for the maintenance of universities and higher institutes — Associations — Extraordinary awards to encourage scientific research and to systematize clinics and laboratories—Supervision over the educational and scientific activities of clinics and laboratories.

DIVISION III: Organization and functioning of scientific and cultural institutes—Protection of professional titles—Private docentships—Students—Foundations, gifts and legacies—Supervision over the educational activities of universities and higher institutes.

Section I: Comparative school legislation — Private docentships — Protection of professional titles — Organization and ac-

tivity of the National Research Council and of the Royal Institute of Archeology and History of Art—Organization and activity of the Royal Astronomical and Vesuvian Observatories and other special institutes of higher culture—Awards to the above-mentioned institutes—Official publications.

Section II: Registration—School fees—Students—Subject examinations—Degree or diploma examinations—State examinations for the practice of the professions—Assistance to students—Scholarships and fellowships in Italy and abroad—University foundations—Gifts and legacies—Supervision over educational activities—Statistics.

DEPARTMENT OF CLASSICAL, SCIENTIFIC AND NORMAL HIGH SCHOOL, EDUCATION AND OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES

DIVISION I: General matters—Private instruction—Organization of educational institutes.

Section I: Legislative studies—Professional rolls—Personnel of the Department—Statistics—List of professors qualified for administrative offices—Roll of honor—Educational trips—"Kirner" Institute — Matters not specifically referred to other bureaus.

Section II: Private institutes—Recognition of private schools—Recognized and standardized schools—Organization and administration of national boarding schools and of public educational institutes—Private educational institutes — Free places — Prizes for sport contests.

DIVISION II: Royal schools—Establishment and administration—Pupils — Foundations — Qualifying competitive examinations.

Section I: Relations between the State and chartered associations for the maintenance of royal schools — Establishment of royal institutes and conversion of standardized institutes into royal—High school councils—School funds.

Section II: Permanent rolls of royal institutes — Alumni of royal and standardized institutes—Examinations and fees — Buildings and furnishings—Educational and scientific equipment of the royal institutes.

OFFICE OF COMPETITIVE AND QUALIFYING EXAMINATIONS

Competitive examinations for professorships in the royal classical.

scientific and normal high schools and the relative qualifying examinations—Competitive examinations for non-teaching personnel of the royal classical, scientific and normal high schools—Competitive examinations for government positions in national boarding schools and public educational institutes.

DIVISION III: Personnel of lyceums and gymnasia and of isolated gymnasia—Non-teaching personnel of educational institutes.

Section I: Personnel of lyceums and gymnasia.

Section II: Non-teaching personnel of educational institutes.

DIVISION IV: Personnel of scientific lyceums, normal institutes, and of public educational institutes.

Section I: Personnel of scientific lyceums and of normal institutes.

Section II: Personnel of national boarding schools and of public educational institutes.

DEPARTMENT OF TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION

DIVISION I: Commercial education.

Section I: Administrative and teaching personnel of technical commercial royal institutes and institutes for surveyors, and of the royal technical commercial schools.

Section II: Permanent technical, administrative and subordinate personnel—Establishment of royal institutes and conversion of standardized institutes into royal—Relations between the State and chartered associations for the maintenance of schools and royal institutes—Standardized and private institutes and schools—Pupils—Examinations — Fees — Grants — Buildings and furnishings — Administrative councils—Scholarships and school fees.

DIVISION II: Industrial and vocational education.

Section I: Establishment, conversion and organization of industrial institutes and schools—Vocational schools for girls—Normal schools for girls—Apprenticeship schools on a reduced program—Laboratory schools—Mining institutes—Lace-making courses in Venezia Giulia and Venezia Tridentina—Pupils — Examinations—Fees — Schedules and programs—Text books—Foundations, gifts and legacies—School funds, subsidies and contributions—Buildings and equipment—Acquisitions—Statistics—Administrative councils.

Section II: Administrative and teaching personnel — Technical and administrative personnel — Supplementary courses.

DIVISION III: Agricultural education.

Section I: Personnel—Teaching duties—Competitive examinations—Specialization courses — Establishment, administration, conversion and standardization of schools and institutes — Constitutions and regulations—Foundations, gifts and legacies — Administrative councils and committees — Pupils—Examinations and fees — Buildings, equipment and inventories of technical and teaching material — Text books—Programs—Agricultural administrations — Teaching and demonstration fields — Laboratories — Scholarships.

NAUTICAL EDUCATION

Administration and juridical status of the personnel of the royal nautical institutes—Private nautical institutes—Scholarships—Foundations — Subsidies — School funds — School buildings — Teaching and laboratory material — Pupils, examinations and fees—Text books—Bureau for the competitive qualifying examinations — Competitive examinations for full-time professorships in royal technical institutes and schools and qualifying examinations related thereto—Competitive examinations for non-teaching positions in royal technical schools and institutes.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Administrative Inspectors—Central Inspectors—Supervisors

DIVISION I: General matters—Salaries and juridical status of teachers—Inspectors and administrative personnel—Legislation — Appeals of elementary school teachers.

Section I: General matters—Personnel of the Department — School inspectors—Educational directors—School and disciplinary councils—Conferring of qualifying diplomas for administrative directors—School jurisdictions and administrative clubs ("circoli direttivi")—Examination of reports of the central inspectors concerning inspectors and administrative personnel—Legislative studies.

Section II: Juridical status and salaries of elementary school teachers —Controversies and problems concerning the status of elementary school teachers—Matters pertaining to the First Commission for Appeals of Elementary School Teachers.

DIVISION II: General organization of schools — Duties of central inspectors—Institutes for the blind and deaf-mutes — Government text books.

Section I: Government text books for elementary schools—Unclassified schools—Establishment of schools — Division of schools and classes—Subsidized schools—Private, evening, holiday and army schools—Supervision over delegates of chartered associations — Inspection services — Examination of the reports of the central inspectors — Assistance to schools—Rosa Maltoni Mussolini Institute — Statistics and publications — Religious instruction — Programs and examinations—Pupils — Enforcement of compulsory school law.

Section II: Legacies and foundations for the maintenance of schools —Institutes for the blind—Methodology schools for the blind—Institutes for deaf-mutes.

DIVISION III: Kindergarten education and institutions for assistance to schools.

Section I: Kindergartens and schools of preparatory grade—Subsidies—Normal schools for the preparation of kindergarten teachers — Institutions for assistance to abnormal children—Establishment of kindergartens as recognized institutions.

Section II: Integrating and extra-curricular activities of the elementary school: Play and recreation rooms, after-school activities, school and teachers' libraries — Seaside and mountain camps—Heliotherapy camps—Open-air schools —Subsidies related thereto — Legacies and foundations for integrating activities — School holidays — Expositions, contests, etc. — Cultural courses for teachers — Honorary inspectors for the integrating activities of the school.

DIVISION IV: Hygiene—Pensions and supplies.

Section I: School buildings and furnishings — Subsidies to teachers —Orders to teachers and teachers' missions.

Section II: Pension fund—National institute for the education and instruction of orphans of elementary school teachers and educational directors—Diplomas, grants and pensions for distinguished services—Junior Red Cross and courses for school nurses—Informative courses of the National *Bahilla* Institute.

BUREAU FOR SCHOOL HYGIENE

INSPECTORSHIP FOR VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL
INSTRUCTION

DIVISION I: Legislation and organization—Supplies—General matters—
Bookkeeping.

Section I: Legislation—General matters—Organization of royal and
private schools and courses—Establishment, conversion and
standardization of schools— Examination headquarters —
Elective courses — Programs—Competitions — Examina-
tions—Statistics—Supplies.

Section II: Credits—Examination of added classes—Reports—Pay-
ments—Budgets.

DIVISION II: Administrative, teaching, technical and service personnel—
Pupils.

Section I: Administrative, teaching and technical personnel of the
royal schools—Permanent staffs.

Section II: Administrative, teaching, and technical personnel of the
royal courses—Permanent staffs—Personnel of the of-
fices of secretaries—Service personnel—Pupils of royal
schools and courses.

CENTRAL BUREAU OF ACCOUNTS

Special office directly dependent upon the Chief Accountant General
and private matters — Personnel of the Central Bureau of Accounts —
Estimated budget — Periodical financial reports and statements —
Examination of bills, regulations and other measures proposed by the
Ministry—Library of the Bureau of Accounts—Bureau of Copyists.

DIVISION I:

Section I:
Section II:
Section III:
Section IV:

DIVISION II:

Section I:
Section II:
Section III:
Section IV:
Special Office

APPENDIX B

CORRADINI'S REPORT ON ELEMENTARY AND PUBLIC EDUCATION IN ITALY IN 1907-1908¹

Conclusions of a report on elementary and public education in Italy, especially for the year 1907-1908, presented to His Excellency the Minister of Public Instruction by the Director General for Elementary and Popular Education, Dr. Camillo Corradini.¹

It is time now to summarize and conclude. If the general picture we have drawn of our elementary school system is predominantly of a dull shade, this certainly was not our intention. Though it may at times be painful, an objective analysis of the true and present conditions of elementary and popular education reveals to us spontaneously the number and magnitude of its deficiencies. The bringing of these to light at this time, without any too flattering illusions, nay without attenuations, has seemed to us an act of sincerity—a feeling which is and must be the duty of every government administration. Nevertheless, if the revelations made in our detailed inquiries seem impressive, we believe that a pessimistic and discomforting attitude should not seize us, nor should we despair over the fate of our school system and fear that it will prove to be a failure. On the contrary, let us have faith, an unswerving faith in its greater, happier and more dignified future. No uncertain signs have inspired this faith in us. It is sufficient to recall to mind, as we have already done elsewhere, the interest manifested in the education of the children of the masses, an interest which is each day becoming more intense and is finding expression in Parliament and the Government councils. There now exists a school consciousness, which, wherever it has manifested itself, has become firmer and more vigilant; and wherever this consciousness has not yet revealed itself, it has begun to express and affirm itself. A tangible and beneficial proof of these general measures on behalf of the school is to be found in the recent legislative acts, initiated by the law of 1904 which, among other things, boasts the merit of having met this immense problem in its entirety, and of placing it among the most vital problems of our national life.

¹Report published by the Ministry of Public Instruction—Department of Elementary and Popular Education. Tip. Operaia Romana Cooperativa, 1910.

However, there has not been in the past a clear understanding of our educational organization in the face of the exigencies which the school must satisfy, and the need, which it is one of the prime duties of the State to answer, of spreading, or better and more truly, of imposing an education upon our entire working class, even though it be only of an elementary grade. As a consequence no steps were taken, though remedies could easily have been carried out if the necessary measures and adequate financial means had been provided. As a result, in the entire peninsula, and in certain regions in particular, the elementary school found itself in a truly alarming condition—so numerous, so profound, and so irreparable did the defects appear!

Now, in this state of affairs, the evils took deeper and firmer roots as years went by, so that whatever has been done during the last seven years could not suddenly alter these conditions. For illiteracy which is so widespread in a greater or lesser degree cannot be wiped out suddenly, nor can we suddenly raise and strengthen the culture of the lower classes, establish all the necessary schools and erect everywhere suitable and spacious school buildings; nor can we give life and energy everywhere to those institutes which prepare, integrate and supplement the work of the school.

Such a prodigious reawakening in so brief a time is not possible, nor can there exist any magic power than can change *ab imis* the intellectual status of a people which has been determined by conditions that have prevailed for years. And it must be observed that it is not only a question of finances—though the importance of that aspect cannot be over-emphasized. To achieve so astonishing a miracle, no sacrifice in the public treasury would suffice, but it is a matter that concerns all the complexities of varied and diverse energies, efforts and conditions which prepare, accompany and bring to completion any reform. In a discussion on education it is well to remember and apply Bacon's proverb: *non saltim, sed gradatim natura procedit*, which, indeed, may be applied to any other social manifestation.

It is nevertheless true that the laws of the legislator, the work of the administration, and the sentiment of the country may lead through different channels to the same and common end; they may react in such a way that the progress may be more intense and rapid in its rhythm, and the longed-for reform may steer clear of any obstacles or delays.

At this moment, therefore, it is premature and indiscreet to conceive too many and too proud hopes; but equally premature and unjust is it to entertain doubt, merely because the harvest has not yet been abundant, merely because the prolonged sacrifices and efforts hitherto endured by the nation on behalf of the school have not brought any useful results.

In truth, the none too joyful heritage of the past still hangs over; on the other hand, a new spirit, a fervor of inspiration, an increasing number of worthwhile undertakings are noted; hence, the serious deficiencies of today, and the very serious needs. But we are now conscious of these

APPENDIX B

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deficiencies and needs, and this feeling will make definite the duty and the necessity of taking measures and stimulating the work. We therefore find ourselves in a real period of transition in our schools.

Let us try to determine briefly the characteristics of the period. We can do this by gathering from the lengthy analysis which we have made those elements that constitute the balance, so to speak, of what has been done in recent years in comparison with what has still to be done.

The number of schools which in 1901-02 was a little more than 53,000 increased by January 1, 1908 to 63,618. This unquestionably represents a large increase considering the brief space of eight years, but it is not yet adequate to our needs since, according to the most modest estimates, it is still necessary to increase the number of schools by at least one-third, in order to assure for our children that minimum of education which is considered absolutely indispensable. The problem then becomes especially serious, when it is studied with particular reference to certain regions, an especially to Southern Italy and the islands. Certainly the 1906 law, which made exceptional appropriations and granted suitable funds for those provinces, has been efficiently carried out. As a result of this law, in less than three years more than 4,000 new schools have been established, of which more than 2,000 are located in small hamlets and rural towns where, ever since the unification of Italy, the voice of the teacher had never been heard, nor had education radiated the faintest light of culture.

Nevertheless it is still necessary to establish many more schools in those provinces. It is also necessary to apply the 1906 law more vigorously, and for the State to appropriate larger additional contributions. For while the number of schools existing in municipalities, to which the above law is applied, is a little more than 19,000, our study shows that there should be at least twice as many more.

The law of July 8, 1904, which contained so many fertile seeds for the good of the school, established for the fifth and sixth grades the "popular course" and pointed out its scope and aims. Despite difficulties and obstacles of every kind, the efforts of this administration have succeeded in assuring the new institution a legal existence by finding a place for it in the budgets of municipalities. By January 1, 1909, there was a total of 3,348 fifth grade classes, and 1,719 sixth grade classes, a total of over 5,000 classes with an attendance of about 95,000 pupils. These are undoubtedly important results, and such as to give us cause for satisfaction and hope; but it is well to bear in mind that so far only a nucleus of this institution has been established. It is necessary that this institution which was so genially conceived and planned by the legislators of 1904 be developed, and its spirit and efficiency will succeed in giving a lasting life to the popular school. Hence, careful and constant vigilance must be exercised if this young organism is not to degenerate and fall away, and if it is to acquire fresh vigor each day and assume those characteristics and that substance which are in harmony with the aims of the legislators.

But other things must also be taken into consideration. It is sufficient to recall that about seven-eighths of our municipalities, representing three-fifths of the population of the Kingdom, have no elementary schools with the higher grades, and that the compulsory school law is limited to only three years, from the ages of 6 to 9, to conclude that great efforts and sacrifices are still required to obtain decisive results in the campaign against illiteracy, and to spread among our working classes that bit of education which does not limit itself to the mere learning of the letters of the alphabet and the reading of a simple primer.

If we pass from the school proper to the school buildings, we have seen how up to January, 1908, over seventy million lire were spent in the construction of school buildings—a vast sum in itself, but insufficient to meet the needs, especially if one considers that it has been gradually spent over a period of thirty years. Therefore, many thousands of school buildings are still wanting; and if we consider the buildings that are now being used, we must declare, even if we do not wish to be too severe in our judgment, that two-thirds are mediocre or entirely inadequate.

Of 61,000 school rooms only a few more than 20,000 are considered as being in a satisfactory condition. However, even in this respect, promising signs of a reawakening are not wanting. Even in provinces where the general condition of school buildings seems most pitiful, many municipalities, as a result of the 1906 law, have erected or plan to erect new school buildings.

The law of 1904 established for the first time the principle of welfare services for school children, which is to be considered almost as a duty integrally related with the compulsory law on elementary education. It would be saying too much, and certainly not quite the correct thing, were we to state that the services are in themselves sufficient to eliminate the causes which hinder the attendance of children who come under the compulsory school law. There is no doubt that they are beneficial, at least in lessening those causes, and wherever they are best organized and most widespread attendance is highest and most regular. We have seen how more than 3,500,000 lire were appropriated in the municipal budgets of 1909 for school services; the greater part of these appropriations were used for that purpose, thanks to the encouragement given by the 1904 law. Thus we have succeeded, though not without opposition or difficulty, in establishing the fact that these services be recognized as a normal and indispensable feature of our school organization; and that even a small share of municipal funds must be devoted for this purpose. Still, in comparison with the size and variety of the needs, it must be confessed that that sum is still too small. Besides, it must be understood that for these services, as in general for all subsidiary institutions of the school, it is not sufficient to have greater contributions from the State and from local chartered associations; a rational and working organization is also necessary. We maintain that there is need in every municipality for the establishment of an appropriate organization having its roots in the society in which it must live and work, assured of the necessary means

for its existence, and insured and protected by appropriate guarantees—in other words, an organization which carries out its work by law and in conformity with the law. What is wanted is a Patronage (*Patronato*).

Even more serious are the defects we have found in the organization of the kindergartens which certainly have a place in our educational system, but which on account of tradition and the lack of appropriate legislation are still often confused with and included among charitable institutions. They lack not only a rational system of administration, but also rules and regulations to control their aims and scope. The government has already given proof of its willingness to cooperate in the solution of this important and serious problem, for not only is it planning to establish kindergartens in Southern Italy, but it also proposes to extend its studies and facilities to all educational institutions devoted to the welfare of infants and children.

This, then, is the present picture of the elementary school in itself and in its relations with those institutions which flourish about it, strengthening and complementing it.

The sorrowful experiences of the past and the revelations of the present clearly point the way by which we may come to a stronger organization of the school which would help in combating illiteracy and would progressively raise the standards of culture and education of our people. The efforts and sacrifices made in the past in an attempt to improve the conditions of the school have not been in vain, but it is necessary to intensify them in a direction which will be more in harmony with and more apt to attain the end in view.

Elementary education is still a public service, entrusted to the municipalities; but because of their financial conditions small communities are unable to extend and develop the school services which are deemed indispensable if they are to satisfy the same needs in a uniform manner, and to enforce observance by all of the law on compulsory school attendance. Nor is it possible to compel many municipalities to do more for their schools; the exigencies of the budget present a stubborn and insurmountable barrier to the precept of the law and to the restraining activity of the higher authorities. When the burden for the expenditures for public education falls upon the meager budgets of small and poor communities in every part of Italy, particularly in the South and in the islands, and when it is realized that the educational appropriations are often more than half of the total budget, how can anyone expect to add further to that burden? It has repeatedly been brought out in the course of our report that this intolerable situation makes the school disliked in many municipalities, and is the cause of many open and secret aversions because it absorbs the meager resources of the small local administrations.

What has the State done? In truth, during the last few years, the rôle of the State has been a highly significant one, for its expenditures for elementary education to supplement the appropriations made by the municipalities has increased by 21 millions—from 5 millions in the fiscal

year 1903-04 to 26 millions in the fiscal year 1910-11. And yet this effort, strong as it may seem at first, is certainly very weak in proportion to the needs if considered in the light of present conditions. In fact, we have seen that the per capita expenditure of the State for elementary education is not even 45 centimes!

Nor is this all. The present system by which the State determines the amount of its contributions is, in a way, such that it gives more to municipalities which have a larger number of schools and which are able to spend more for their schools. The law of 1906, which proposed to bring about exceptional measures in favor of the more needy and less progressive sections of Italy, has somewhat attenuated but not entirely eliminated this method which surely disregards the principle of integration and distributive justice.

These remedies are inevitable. First, that more and larger sums be appropriated for the great, impelling needs of schools, and that the State, conscious of its noble duty, should impose a financial sacrifice on the public treasury; second, that as a consequence and in proportion to this increased financial assistance there shall also be a more direct and continuous intervention on the part of the State in the administration of schools. In this way, without loosening all necessary and solid ties that bind the school to society, it may free itself from the too narrow and restricted influence of the small municipalities which threatens to limit and stifle it. The school may thus develop within a wider and stronger organism, towards which converge the needs, interests, forces, and means of the State and the municipalities. This system may have the force to promote and carry through the establishment of schools wherever and whenever needed, thus making possible the enforcement of the compulsory school law.

It is, then, a larger financial contribution and a radical administrative reform that our school requires at the present time. This presents an immense financial and administrative problem, while it practically solves the problem of educational organization.

The lawmakers of 1904 solved this problem also, for they had a clear and precise conception of the twofold purpose of the elementary schools, namely, to prepare pupils who wished to continue their studies in high schools and to provide some education for the masses. The lawmakers carried this distinction through, both in the number of years of study and in the content and scope of the programs. These programs were approved by the Royal decree of January 29, 1905. It may in truth be said that these programs brought the school closer to life, paved the way for the introduction of the most recent pedagogic findings, and made possible the bringing about of harmony between the changing world conditions and the lives of our children who must gain for themselves a place in it. Thus, in the first four classes considerable time is devoted to formal preparation which, however, is harmonized in an adequate measure, if you will, with concrete or realistic instruction. The last two grades,

which are commonly known as the "popular grades" are destined to be the basis of that popular school which we have briefly outlined elsewhere.

This school is allowed greater freedom of instruction for it must adapt the school to the real exigencies of popular education, in accordance with the mould or form which it assumes in relation to the manifold human activities and to the varied manifestations of society. A twofold need was recognized in order that the elementary school might successfully and efficiently carry out its mission and both needs have been satisfied by the programs of 1905. On the one hand, they assure the school the greatest possible uniformity in general methodology; a methodology which constitutes, so to say, the connecting link between the intellect and the spirit of all Italian peoples, and marks with a common, distinct seal the culture of our people. On the other hand, these measures impose a reasonable and opportune differentiation in concrete applications—a differentiation which serves the life of individuals and which is the life of society.

We do not mean to imply by this that the present programs represent all that is absolute and perfect, since perfection, according to the wise, is not a human trait; so that like everything else that is human, even the programs may have their uncertainties, shortcomings, and defects, and they may, therefore, require changes, additions and eliminations.

But before desiring and wishing for new and different things, it is prudent to gather the results of our experience and watchfully wait until the programs are carried out under conditions that are somewhat more propitious than those of today.

And surely one must acknowledge the fact that up to the present time our programs have had more potential than active strength; nor have we been able to obtain from them the results hoped for and which we still confidently await. This statement, which is unquestionably well-founded, is based on two things. First, the means are still very scanty to enable our elementary school to show all its force and to demonstrate its virtue, and the non-pessimistic and impartial analysis of the preceding pages have demonstrated the serious and numerous shortcomings of our educational system. Second, the preparation of our elementary school teachers, which, we admit, is even better and more elevated than in the past, does not fully manifest itself as being adequate for the proper development, both in spirit and in essence, of our primary and popular school program. A remedy for these defects will be found, we hope, in our new bill on elementary education which, having already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, is now awaiting the decision of the Senate. That bill, in fact, calls for a new and greater financial contribution by the State on behalf of the elementary school, and establishes an administrative system much more efficient than the one now in force. There is no branch of the school organization—buildings, assistance, subsidiary institutions, preparatory institutions, complementary institutions — which it

does not affect, both in the way of larger financial subsidies and by a stronger organization.

As far as the other problem is concerned, namely, the preparation of the teaching staff, its solution requires a complete renovation of the normal schools. This renovation must extend to the normal school proper and to the graduate courses which such schools offer. It is necessary, and such is not the case at present, that the preparation of elementary school teachers be in harmony with the content and scope of popular education—a preparation that is truly adequate to the school, that must reproduce, as has been said, life in its manifold relations and in the natural multiplicity of its aspects. It is necessary, in short, to draw from education a truly fruitful and lasting work so that the teacher will, in his daily work, know how to bring moral principles and theoretical rules in contact with reality, thus building a firm foundation for the intellectual and moral future of his pupils. And in order to solve so difficult a problem the cry has long been raised for a reform of the normal school. The solemn promises of the legislators are not wanting in this. Thus strengthened in all its important aspects, the elementary school will be able to demonstrate the strength and virtue which it has.

Meanwhile, Your Excellency, the office over which I have the honor to preside will continue to work faithfully, and will devote all its efforts for the good and rigorous conduct of the elementary school; an activity that numerous obstacles have in truth slackened or attenuated, but which, nevertheless, this office has always made clear with a calm and firm conviction of its duty, despite the painful vicissitudes which have disturbed and upset our administration.

APPENDIX C

ROYAL DECREE, JULY 1, 1933, No. 786 TRANSFER OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF AUTONOMOUS MUNICIPALITIES TO THE STATE

ORGANIZATION OF THE SUPERVISORY SERVICES

Article 1. The list of full-time inspectors and of the administrative personnel of elementary schools contained in Table H, appended to the Royal decree of June 2, 1932, No. 690, is replaced by Table A, appended to the present decree, to be effective January 1, 1934.

School inspectors and educational directors shall have charge of a group of classes, which together form an educational circle (*circolo didattico*).

The administration of schools located within the jurisdiction of municipalities which are chief cities of provinces but which do not constitute a school district (*circoscrizione scolastica*), shall be entrusted to a school inspector who may be assisted by one or more educational directors.

Chief school inspectors and first inspectors shall supervise the school services of a group of educational circles, which together constitute a school district, except as provided in Article 15 of the Consolidated Law of February 5, 1928, No. 577.

Article 2. The position of central inspector of elementary schools shall be filled according to the provisions of Article 10 of the Consolidated Law of February 5, 1928, No. 577.

Promotions to the rank of chief school inspector shall be made in accordance with the provisions of Article 6 of the Royal decree of November 11, 1923, No. 2395; promotions to the rank of first school inspector shall be made in accordance with Article 7 of the same decree.

Promotions to the rank of school inspector shall be made in accordance with the provisions of Article 8 of the Royal decree of November 1, 1923, No. 2395, and of Article 21 of the Royal decree of December 30, 1923, No. 2960, and subsequent modifications. The programs and other regulations concerning the conduct of the promotion ex-

aminations shall be established by ministerial decree.

In order to meet the requirement of length of service prescribed for admission to the promotion examinations, active service rendered as educational director of municipalities shall be taken into account.

Appointments to positions of educational director shall be made on the basis of public competitive examinations.

Article 3. The inspection and administrative personnel of elementary schools listed in Table H, appended to the Royal decree of June 2, 1932, No. 690, shall be included, beginning January 1, 1934, in Table A, appended to the present decree, within the proper rank and seniority.

Article 4. Government educational directors of municipalities whose schools have passed under the direct control of the State as a result of their having renounced the autonomy over their schools before January 1, 1932, shall be credited with the service rendered as active educational directors of said municipalities, both for determining the salaries which they are to receive after January 1, 1934, and for their admission to the promotion examination to the ninth grade.

Article 5. In accordance with Article 331 of the Consolidated Law on local finance, approved by the Royal decree of September 14, 1931, No. 1175, the administrative personnel of municipal schools that still retain their school autonomy, shall be registered, beginning January 1, 1934, in the list included under Table A, appended to the present decree.

Central educational directors of municipalities having more than 200,000 inhabitants shall be ranked as head school inspectors.

Central educational directors of municipalities having a population of less than 200,000 inhabitants shall be ranked as first school inspectors.

For the purposes referred to in the last paragraph of Article 20 of the Consolidated Law of February 5, 1928, No. 577, the number of classes with individual teachers, existing in municipalities on December 31, 1932, shall be taken into account.

Municipal educational directors dependent on municipalities which, in addition to the office of municipal educational director, have one or more offices of sectional educational directors, shall be ranked as school inspectors.

Other municipal educational directors and sectional directors shall be ranked as educational inspectors.

All the aforementioned municipal educational directors shall be placed in their respective grades in the official list, on the basis of length of service rendered on December 31, 1933.

In accordance with the provisions of the preceding paragraphs, their qualifications and positions shall entitle them to be registered in the same ranks, discounting the service that would place them in a lower rank. In their respective ranks, however, they follow the personnel appointed in accordance with Article 3 of the present decree.

Article 6. The salaries of directors, referred to in Article 5 of the present decree, are determined on the basis of the services rendered as of December 31, 1933, with the qualifications and in the positions that shall entitle them to be registered in the individual ranks in government rolls. Such service shall also be taken into account for the purpose of meeting the seniority requirements which are prescribed for promotions.

The above mentioned directors shall receive as *ad personam* allowance any difference in their income which is in excess of that due them at the time of their registration in the permanent government rolls. Such allowances would probably be absorbed by the successive increases in their salaries as State employees.

In order to determine the amount of the *ad personam* allowance the following shall be taken into account: the pensionable salary, the bonus for active service and for the high cost of living, or any similar allowances, excluding, in any case, the compensation for inspection of schools and for extraordinary duties and special assignments.

Referring solely to the liquidation of the pension and to the application of the deduction relating thereto, the allowances of the personnel referred to in the preceding paragraphs shall not be calculated for services rendered after December 31, 1933, in a measure lower than those pension allowances enjoyed on that date.

Article 7. Inspectors and municipal school superintendents on the permanent list who, on December 31, 1932, exercised supervisory duties in municipalities, shall be registered in the category of school inspectors, and shall be entered on the rolls after the school inspectors, in accordance with the provisions of Article 3, and ahead of the municipal directors, in accordance with the fifth paragraph of Article 5. Their position on the permanent roll shall be fixed in accordance with their respective seniority, determined by the last paragraph of the preceding Article 5.

The provisions of Article 6 of the present decree apply to the personnel referred to in the preceding paragraph.

The provisions of the first paragraph of Article 27 shall apply to the permanent personnel, who, on December 31, 1932, were assigned to the teaching of special subjects, with the rank of inspector or similar grade.

Article 8. Promotions cannot be made from the list appended to Table A until after the administrative personnel taken over from the municipalities has been assigned.

Article 9. The Minister of National Education shall have the right to reject from the permanent government list those educational directors and municipal school inspectors and superintendents who lack the requirements necessary for the normal performance of supervisory duties in elementary schools.

Those who are not accepted on the permanent list shall be dismissed from the service by ministerial decree; or they may be reassigned to the

lists of elementary school teachers, and be appointed to whatever city the administration may deem proper; or they may even be readmitted to the position they held at the time of their appointment as municipal educational directors in the lists of the Ministry of National Education. In the latter case they shall be placed in the same rank they then held and shall follow the last employee in that rank.

For the purpose of computing the period of service in connection with the fixing of salaries and any eventual advancement in rank, credit shall be given only for the period during which they have been on the permanent rolls.

Article 10. In the offices of district school inspectors, fifty career officials of group C of the office of royal educational supervisors shall be appointed.

A ministerial decree shall determine the location of the school districts to which the above mentioned personnel may be assigned, and the maximum number of employees that may be appointed to each district.

Article 11. School inspectors and officers of a school district for whom no secretarial assistance has been provided, shall have the right, in the performance of their duties, to utilize the services of an elementary school teacher in the service of the municipality wherein the school district is located.

A teacher shall be assigned by the educational supervisor on the proposal of the inspector; the teacher shall not be excused from his teaching duties, and shall be required to attend to his office duties during hours which do not conflict with his teaching schedule. An annual compensation of 1,000 lire, exclusive of the 12 per cent reduction, shall be given him.

Article 12. Full-time district inspectors located in a municipality having more than 100,000 inhabitants; school inspectors placed at the disposal of the royal educational supervisors, in accordance with Article 15 of the Consolidated Law of February 5, 1928, No. 577; and school inspectors assigned to the special bureau of the Governorship of Rome shall receive an allowance of 500 lire annually, exclusive of the 12 per cent reduction, as honorarium for inspections made in the municipality up to and not exceeding three kilometers from the inhabited section of the town, excluding all other allowances or reimbursements for missions within the said limit of distance.

Article 13. Not more than three central elementary school inspectors may, by decree of the Minister of National Education, be assigned to the administration of school services in the larger municipalities.

Such an appointment does not entitle the person to any compensation, not even to fees for missions.

As a result of such assignment, the number of inspectors placed at the disposal of the offices of royal educational supervisors, according to Arti-

cle 15 of the Consolidated Law of February 5, 1928, No. 577, is correspondingly increased.

Article 14. Beginning January 1, 1934, a special government bureau shall be established under the control of an officer of the National Educational Administration of the fifth or sixth grade for the administration of the elementary schools of the Governorship of Rome.

Such officer shall, in accordance with Article 4 of the Royal decree of July 29, 1928, No. 1945, be in charge of all the school services of the Governorship. The Governorship itself shall place at his disposal the personnel necessary for the maintenance of the said bureau.

A school and disciplinary council shall be established in connection with the aforesaid special office, and both shall be presided over by the officer referred to in the first paragraph.

SALARIES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Article 15 Beginning January 1, 1934, five categories of elementary school teachers shall be established, with salaries and bonuses for active service as fixed in the annexed Table B.

The categories of teachers shall be determined by the present population of each municipality as ascertained by the census of April 21, 1931. Teachers of municipalities having more than 800,000 inhabitants shall belong to the first category; teachers of municipalities having from 500,000 to 800,000 inhabitants shall belong to the second category; teachers of municipalities having from 100,000 to 500,000 inhabitants shall belong to the third category; teachers of other municipalities which are chief cities of provinces shall belong to the fourth category; teachers of all other municipalities, including those formerly dependent on the offices of the royal educational supervisors and those dependent on the municipalities which retained their school autonomy shall belong to the fifth category.

The lists of elementary school teachers in each office of the royal educational supervisors shall be classified into separate categories in accordance with the preceding paragraph.

Beginning January 1, 1934, elementary school teachers shall be assigned to one of the five categories, and shall be registered in the corresponding list in accordance with their seniority.

Article 16. Elementary school teachers of autonomous municipalities who, as a result of the new salary schedules, will receive on January 1, 1934, a salary less than that received on December 31, 1933, shall receive the difference as an *ad personam* allowance. The third paragraph of Article 6 of the present decree shall be observed in determining the amount of this allowance.

The *ad personam* allowance will be gradually absorbed by subsequent increases in salaries at the rate of one-third of the allowance for each

increase; or if the amount is less than a third of the allowance, the whole increase may be granted at once. However, after their thirty-fifth year of service, calculated in accordance with the regulations in force, full-time teachers in the service at the present time shall receive the maximum salary which they would have received in accordance with the schedules in force on December 31, 1933, in the municipality to which they belonged on this date.

The provisions of Article 6, last paragraph, of the present decree shall also be applied to the above-mentioned teachers.

Article 17. In each of the first four categories referred to in Article 15, a staff of extra teachers, representing about one-twentieth of the regular permanent positions, shall be added to every office of educational supervisor. Extra teachers in the service of municipalities whose schools are transferred to the State shall be included in a special temporary list for each of the municipalities wherein they are employed; they shall retain the appointment as special (extraordinary) teachers in the same municipality. A corresponding number of positions in the temporary list shall be kept vacant in the rolls referred to in the first paragraph.

Article 18. The provision of Article 333 of the Consolidated Law of September 14, 1931, No. 1175, on local finance, shall go into effect on January 1, 1934, only insofar as they concern elementary school teachers.

In accordance with the provisions of the second paragraph of Article 333, the distribution of the pensions and allowances due to the teachers between the Pension Fund (*monte pensioni*) and the municipalities shall be made in proportion to the duration of the services respectively rendered while enrolled in the Pension Fund and the municipalities.

The duties assigned to the Controller's Office in the application of the third, fourth and fifth paragraphs of the above mentioned Article 333, are hereby delegated to the Ministry of National Education. This measure, however, shall not affect the right of appeal to the Controller's Office, in accordance with the existing laws.

Article 19. School inspectors and educational directors, including those dependent on the Governorship of Rome, who, after January 1, 1934, shall be transferred to the government rolls of inspectors and administrative personnel of elementary schools, shall come under the salary and pension regulations established for officials belonging to the aforesaid lists.

If special regulations were in force on December 31, 1933, on behalf of the personnel referred to in the preceding paragraphs, or on behalf of their widows and orphans (of minor age), such persons shall have the right to request that the pension or allowance be liquidated in accordance with the rules mentioned in the said regulations.

The procedure established in the third, fourth and fifth paragraphs of Article 333 of the Consolidated Law of September 14, 1931, No. 1175, and the various provisions of the preceding Article 18, shall be observed.

COMPETITIVE EXAMINATIONS AND TRANSFERS OF
TEACHERS

Article 20. The teaching staff of elementary schools in municipalities included in the first four permanent categories shall be appointed by means of special competitive examinations held by the royal educational supervisor for each category, except as hereinafter provided by Article 24.

Successful candidates in special competitive examinations shall be appointed as extra teachers (*insegnanti in soprannumero*); they shall receive the appointment as extraordinary teachers (*straordinari*) in the order of seniority as soon as vacant posts are available. After serving for three years as extraordinary teachers they may obtain appointments as regular teachers.

Extra teachers shall receive the same salaries and bonuses for active service as the extraordinary teachers classed in the category immediately below; in appropriate cases they shall also receive a special indemnity for the high cost of living.

Appointments of teachers in schools of municipalities contained in the fifth category shall be made by means of general competitive examinations for extraordinary teachers.

Article 21. The holding of both general and special competitive examinations shall be announced by the royal educational supervisor at intervals of not less than two years. Such announcements are subject to the authorization of the Ministry of National Education.

The teachers' examinations referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be held before the same commission.

Article 22. The lists of successful candidates in special and general examinations, arranged in the order of merit, shall contain as many names as the number of vacancies for which the examination was held.

Only those candidates having an average of not less than seventy per cent (35/50th) in both the oral and written examination shall be included on the graded lists of special examinations. Successful candidates in competitive examinations shall have a right to an appointment until the graded list has been exhausted.

Their names shall be retained on the list even though, after an interval of two years, another examination is held as provided for in the first paragraph of the preceding article.

Whenever the graded list is exhausted before the end of the two-year period, the royal educational supervisor may be authorized by the Ministry of National Education to increase by not more than one-tenth the number of positions for which the competitive examination was held, integrating the graded list of successful candidates with an equal number of candidates who received the minimum prescribed grade and who follow the successful candidates in the order of merit.

A successful candidate in a special or general examination held by an educational supervisor shall still keep, unless he specifically declines, the rights accorded him by the graded list of special examinations even though he may have received his appointment as a result of a general competitive examination.

Article 23. Teachers included in the graded lists of examinations held by municipalities after December 31, 1931, and which are either exhausted or about to become exhausted, shall retain their right to appointment in the municipal schools with the salaries established by Table B, annexed to the present decree, and in the third paragraph of the preceding Article 20.

Article 24. The provision of Article 141, and the first paragraphs of Articles 142 and 144 of the Consolidated Law of February 5, 1928, No. 577, shall also apply to teachers belonging to the first four categories for transfers from one municipality to another in the same category, or to a municipality of a lower category belonging to a school administration.

After the transfers have been made in accordance with the preceding paragraph and after competitive examinations based on titles have been held, not more than two-fifths of the vacancies in each category in each office of educational supervisor shall be filled by teachers of a lower category, belonging to the same or to any other school administration. Such competitive examinations shall be held annually for each category by the royal educational supervisor, and shall be judged by an appropriate commission.

Article 25. For admission to examinations by titles, in accordance with the second paragraph of the preceding article, the work of teachers must have been adjudged satisfactory (*valente*) during the preceding four years; in addition, teachers must have completed four years' service on a full-time basis for competitive examinations for positions in the fourth category; eight years' service for positions in the third category; and twelve years' service for positions in the first and second categories; or they must have completed four years' service in the category immediately below that for which the examination has been announced.

Those who have reached fifty years of age may not participate in these competitive examinations.

Article 26. Teachers who as a result of a special examination or an examination based on titles have been transferred from one roll to another of a higher category, shall be registered in the latter list, for salary purposes, in the salary schedule corresponding to the total period of service as a full-time teacher.

A teacher who is transferred either for reasons of service or because he has made application from one roll to another of a lower category, shall retain his rights of seniority. In the new roll he shall be registered in the salary schedule corresponding to the total years of service. He shall have no right to an *ad personam* allowance on account of a difference in salary.

TEACHERS OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS — SPECIAL SCHOOLS —
RELIEF SCHOOLS — MUNICIPAL SERVICES AND
SCHOOL ASSISTANCE

Article 27. Full-time positions existing in autonomous municipalities for the teaching of special subjects in elementary schools shall be temporarily retained until the personnel which filled them on December 31, 1932, has been eliminated. Those who held one of these positions on that date shall have, beginning January 1, 1934, the salary established for elementary school teachers of the municipality by Articles 15 and 16 of the present decree.

The Ministry of National Education may make appointments to positions for the teaching of special subjects within the limits of those existing at the beginning of the school year 1932-33. A teacher thus assigned shall have the right to a compensation of three lire per hour, which shall include the allowance for the high cost of living and the 12 per cent reduction.

Article 28. By appropriate agreement to be approved by the Ministry of National Education, the royal educational supervisor shall establish with the municipality or with the chartered association which has promoted the founding of a special elementary school which has passed under the control of the State by virtue of the Consolidated Law of September 14, 1931, No. 1175, the contributions that must be made by the municipality or by the chartered association to insure the regular functioning of the subsidiary and assistance services, and of all those services which, in accordance with the provisions of Article 2 of the above-mentioned Consolidated Law, fall upon the school administration.

The decision of the municipality concerning the agreement referred to in the preceding article shall be subject to the approval of the competent authorities.

The royal educational supervisor, after consulting the School Council, and with the approval of the Ministry of National Education, may pay to teachers employed in special elementary schools a monthly allowance not exceeding 20 lire, exclusive of the 12 per cent reduction, whenever the work of such teachers must be performed after the regular teaching hours. This amount must be voted upon from year to year.

Article 29. Teachers in municipalities, selected preferably from among those who have special aptitudes and knowledge of educational administration, shall be appointed to the special elementary schools referred to in the preceding Article 28.

When a government course or a government vocational school is established in connection with a special elementary school, the educational instructor of the elementary school may be entrusted, by the Ministry of National Education, with the administration of the course or of the vocational school.

Article 30. The responsibilities assumed by those municipalities

which have retained their educational autonomy toward chartered associations which support relief schools, shall fall upon the State only with regard to teachers who have been transferred under Article 2, No. 4, of the Consolidated Law of September 14, 1931, No. 1175.

Article 31. Municipalities in which the schools have been transferred to the State shall not be permitted to decrease the number of attendants and custodians in the service on January 1, 1932.

In any case, the above-mentioned municipalities must provide for their attendants and custodians in the proportion of one attendant or custodian to each group of ten classes for municipalities having a population of less than 15,000, and to each group of six classes for all other municipalities.

Article 32. Measures adopted by the mayors or rectors concerning expenditures of new and additional sums of an optional character for the promotion of national education, as referred to in the first paragraph of Article 305 of the Consolidated Law of September 14, 1931, No. 1175; measures adopted by the mayors for the purposes specified in the second paragraph of the same article; and measures concerning increases of funds destined for school lunches or school patronage (*patronato*) made obligatory by the last paragraph of the same article, shall be communicated by the prefecture concerned to the royal educational supervisor within ten days from the date of approval by the competent authorities.

Article 33. The Ministry of National Education may authorize municipalities which are chief cities of provinces to entrust the administration of educational institutions and school services which continue to depend on them, to the royal school inspector assigned to the supervision of the elementary schools, on condition that they keep at the disposal of the inspector the necessary staff for the maintenance of the above-mentioned services.

Article 34. Government school inspectors and educational directors shall have their headquarters in one of the public schools of the municipality which is the chief city of the school district or circle.

Municipalities shall be required to provide suitable and adequate headquarters for the offices of inspectors assigned to the supervision of elementary schools in chief cities of provinces.

The Governorship shall furnish the headquarters for the special bureau referred to in Article 14.

Municipal administrations and the Governorship of Rome shall provide the furnishings, lighting, heat and maintenance of buildings, as well as funds for printing matter and stationary supplies for all offices referred to in the preceding paragraph.

FINAL MEASURES

Article 35. The full-time lists of the personnel of the school administration fixed in Table D. annexed to the Royal decree of June 2, 1932,

No. 690, are hereby replaced by those set forth in Table C annexed to the present decree.

To the full-time lists of the personnel of the Central Administration established by Table A, appended to the Royal decree of June 2, 1932, No. 690, there shall be added the positions specified in Table D appended to the present decree.

The number of accountants connected with the offices of the royal educational supervisors who, in accordance with Article 6 of the Royal decree law of July 29, 1925, No. 1286, may be assigned from the Central Administration, shall be increased to ten.

Of the ten officers referred to in the preceding paragraph, at least four shall be of the grade of chief accountant.

Article 36. The Ministry of National Education, at least once a year, shall order the inspection of the offices of the royal educational supervisors in order to ascertain the regularity of the expenditures made for elementary education. The power of the Ministry of Finance to order inspections and verifications in accordance with the general bookkeeping laws of the State, remains in force.

Article 37. The Minister of National Education, by means of his own decree, may appoint as educational director of the tenth grade, teachers who are at present on regional lists and who, in the ten years preceding the enforcement of the present decree, may have served as full-time educational directors of municipalities.

Such appointments shall be made with the approval of the Commission on Appeals for Elementary School Teachers. They shall be placed on the list after the last educational director, and shall receive the initial salary fixed for that grade.

Article 38. Table A, appended to the Royal decree of September 18, 1924, No. 1570, is hereby declared void; the personnel included therein shall be registered in the corresponding permanent lists of the office of royal educational supervisors, in accordance with the provisions of Article 28 of the Royal decree of November 11, 1923, No. 2395.

Article 39. Article 35 and following shall become effective the first day of the month following the publication of the present decree in the *Gazzetta Ufficiale* of the Kingdom.

TABLE A
INSPECTION AND ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL OF
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Group B

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Qualification</i>	<i>Number of Positions</i>
6th	Central inspectors	9
7th	Chief school inspectors	73
8th	First school inspectors	205
9th	School inspectors	300
10th	Educational directors	1,710
		<hr/> 2,297

TABLE B
SALARIES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS,
EXCLUDING REDUCTION OF 12 PER CENT

	Salaries					Supplement for active service*
	Cat. I	Cat. II	Cat. III	Cat. IV	Cat. V	
Extraordinary	8,000	7,300	6,900	6,500	5,900	1,300
Ordinary	8,700	8,000	7,300	6,900	6,200	1,500
Ordinary after 4 years	9,300	8,700	8,000	7,300	6,500	1,500
Ordinary after 8 years	10,000	9,300	8,700	8,000	6,900	1,500
Ordinary after 12 years	10,500	10,000	9,300	8,700	7,300	1,800
Ordinary after 16 years	11,300	10,500	10,000	9,300	8,000	1,800
Ordinary after 20 years	12,200	11,300	10,500	10,000	8,700	1,800
Ordinary after 24 years	12,800	12,200	11,300	10,500	9,300	1,800
Ordinary after 28 years	13,500	12,800	12,200	11,300	10,000	1,800

* The same for each category.

TABLE C
OFFICES OF ROYAL EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISORS

Qualification

Administrative Career

Group A

<i>Grade</i>		<i>Vacancies</i>
5th	First class educational supervisors	7
6th	Second class educational supervisors	15
7th	Assistant educational supervisors	10
8th	Executive secretaries	15
9th	First secretaries	26
10th	Secretaries	} 28
11th	Assistant secretaries	
		<hr/> 101

Accountant Career

Group B

7th	First class chief accountants	6
8th	Second class chief accountants	19
9th	First accountants	28
10th	Accountants	} 36
11th	Assistant accountants	
		<hr/> 89

Secretarial Career

Group C

9th	Chief filing clerks	11
10th	First filing clerks	32
11th	Filing clerks	63
12th	Assistants	110
13th	Second assistants	46
		<hr/> 262

Subordinate Staff

Chief ushers	29
Ushers	29
Attendants	12
	<hr/>
	70

TABLE D

INCREASE IN THE NUMBER OF POSITIONS IN THE
CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION*Qualification*

Administrative Career

*Group A**Grade*

6th	Divisional chief directors	1
6th	Chief inspectors	2
7th	Sectional chiefs	1
8th	Counsellors	1
9th	First secretaries	1
10th	Secretaries	{ 2
11th	Assistant secretaries	
		<hr/>
		8

Secretarial Career

Group C

10th	First filing clerks	1
11th	Filing clerks	1
12th	Assistants	1
		<hr/>
		3

APPENDIX D

ROYAL DECREE, JUNE 29, 1933, No. 892 EXAMINATION PROGRAMS FOR CLASSICAL, SCIENTIFIC, AND NORMAL HIGH SCHOOLS

PROGRAMS

GENERAL INFORMATION REGARDING EXAMINATIONS

I. In all types of examinations the well-known *composition* in Italian is to be replaced by an essay treating a definite subject, or, in the case of some pupils, by a critical analysis of a prose passage or a poem. But the essay should not be a simple repetition of the subject matter read, studied, or learned in any manner or form, nor should the analysis be a simple literal interpretation. Since the purpose of the oral examination in language and literature is to lead the student to reveal his individuality and his understanding of, and reaction to, what he reads, the examiner must not reject as extraneous to the theme, or condemn *a priori* as insincere, any evidences of emotion with which the pupil may enliven his essay, or any expression, however imperfect, of the manner in which the subject treated has shaped itself in his mind.

II. Translations from the classical languages must be in good idiomatic Italian; errors in the use of Italian as well as in the translation shall be taken into account.

III. In all written examinations in language and literature the use of vocabularies containing sections that are not strictly lexicographic must be prohibited. Tables of verbal forms are not associated with vocabularies, and, therefore, are not permitted.

IV. The essentials in every oral test are clarity of expression and continuity of exposition. In this connection the candidate should be aided and guided by the clarity and the logical order of the questions, and, in general, by the conversation of the examiner.

V. In every oral test the student's mastery of language and his ability to express his thoughts clearly should be taken into consideration.

VI. The oral test should be conducted in an orderly manner, that is, in such a way that the candidate will not be distracted from his chosen topic or forced to begin his explanations again and again in order to answer new questions, necessitating a fresh mental effort.

The examination programs contain a wide variety of subjects because they presuppose a regular course of study of two, three, or four years. But this does not imply that the entire subject matter must be covered in the examination; instead, the examination should consist of a careful discussion of some one author or some definite points. A successful candidate is one who can give evidence of an adequate grasp of the entire subject under consideration. Such a criterion, although only approximate, will be much less fallacious than one based on an examination consisting of disconnected questions and answers. The latter system would undoubtedly establish the practice of preparing isolated answers, which would contribute nothing to the mental development of our youth and would be merely a torture to them.

VII. The subjects listed in the examination programs are not comparable to the titles in a scientific-literary encyclopedia, but serve merely as points of reference and almost of recognition, at which the mature mind of the examiner and the still formative minds of the candidates in the different types of entrance, maturity, and qualifying examinations, may easily meet.

Wherever reference is made to comment or to historical interpretations, to aesthetic evaluation, to organic and harmonious vision, etc., the fact should be readily apparent that these are not to be expected of young pupils, but are possible only to experienced teachers. These expressions are transferred bodily from the language of culture to the text of the examination program in order to give them the necessary clarity and above all to emphasize the aim and goal toward which one must gradually work. There is nothing more depressing to the general tone of teaching than the constant endeavor to render everything simple, evident, clear from the very start, while the true life of the mind, that which should be revered in the school, is one laborious conquest in which a little ground is gained each day. With this premise in mind, and in accordance with the requisites referred to above, it is needless to repeat that in addition to the educational consciousness of the examiners there is a sense of measure and hierarchy of knowledge and capacity. In other words, when mention is made of institutions, religion, philosophy, literature, art, culture, customs of a given people of a given period, the poetic world of a great writer, the organization of social classes, revolutions, reform, etc., it is understood that the candidate should discuss these topics not as an erudite, but as a student whose knowledge and analytical ability are necessarily limited by the level of his mental maturity—a level which will vary in accordance with his age.

The same may be said of certain requirements mentioned in the general information section accompanying the programs. It is desirable that the candidate show taste, sentiment and appreciation. An examination would be of a little worth if it did not seek to bring out these qualities. But such qualities are natural endowments possessed in varying degree by different persons. It would be unfair to ignore this gradation, or to fail to realize that the brevity of the time given to the examination and the

peculiar state of mind that it creates may prevent these talents from being completely brought to light.

Furthermore, whenever the programs specify that a candidate give evidence of his knowledge of the complete works of great writers, this simply means that he must show, with the aid of the examiner, his ability to orient himself; it does not mean that he is obliged to expound the purpose of the work, which may sometimes be very broad and complicated. It must be borne in mind that the examination should not be an inventory of the facts acquired, but an exploration of attitudes; for many things will be taught which cannot be searched out by an examination, unless the examination itself is to degenerate into fragmentary bits of daily lessons, or into a memory test which would also be one-sided and fragmentary.

VIII. In all the oral examinations in language and literature, unless otherwise specified in the special information or in the text of the programs, the comment or translation should be intercalated in the exposition of the content or should adhere to it closely; and this should reveal that the thought of the writer is understood not only in its personal and abstract meaning, but as a revelation of a moral world, and as a reflection of the life, the society, the people of the period to which the writer belongs. All this should be within the above mentioned limits, and in accordance with the grade of education of the pupil.

In general, comment on and translation of a passage should not be required unless the candidate has first read it aloud; in many cases, the manner in which it is read will in itself be an important element in judging whether references to its content are useless or necessary. When sight translation is required, this should likewise be preceded by a reading, but the candidate may do this himself so that he may understand the text and study the structure, which is, as it were, the logical syntax of the sentence.

IX. In all cases in which the examination program in foreign languages requires conversations or readings on the history and civilization of foreign peoples, mention should always be made of the cultural relations which bound and continue to bind these peoples with the Italy of the past and present.

X. It is necessary that examiners (as well as the professors conducting the courses) avoid topics, discussions, passages from works, etc., which might conceivably disturb or corrupt the religious and moral conscience of pupils.

Finally, it seems unnecessary to recommend especially to the chairmen of examination commissions that these commissions be enabled to conduct the oral tests with calm and order, in rooms which will permit every examiner and every candidate to speak in a loud voice without disturbing other examinations; and that there should always be available a sufficient number of books, atlases, blackboards, etc. to enable both candidates and examiners to work under the most desirable conditions.

EXAMINATION FOR ADMISSION TO
SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The purpose of this examination is to determine the ability of the candidate to continue his studies, rather than to reveal the number of fragmentary facts he has memorized.

Dictation, which is preceded by the expressive reading of the passage to be written, must not only be a test of the pupil's ability in orthography, but must also reveal his capacity to understand the passage. The passage should therefore be selected with care both with regard to the completeness of its meaning and its suitability to the mind of the pupil.

The oral test in *Italian*, and the conversation on general cultural subjects, present important differences and satisfy two distinct ends. An essential element of the first is the reading aloud. No one denies the importance and value of good oral reading, yet not all teachers exert themselves to obtain this from their pupils. This is not always taken into proper account in grading pupils. Despite the limited time available, this examination must serve as a means of estimating the mental capacity of the child. The way he reads is sufficient to show, in a very short time, his degree of intelligence and his power of imagination. The candidate should be able to convey his reaction to the thought of the writer, and the meaning and sentiment behind the passage read. It will, therefore, be necessary to avoid the selection of dry expositions and of passages of too complicated construction. When necessary, the candidate should be permitted to glance over the passage before reading it aloud.

The points of grammar referred to in part III of the program should consist only of an explanation of the technical terms; the logical relations will be brought out in the reading and summary. The grammatical exercises that follow will consist of simple application; but the candidate should not be taken too far from the passage read, and should not be expected to reveal useless knowledge in the technique of syntax.

The same passage may offer suggestions for the conversation in the general culture test. The topics of the conversation must be chosen with the object of ascertaining whether the pupil is observing, whether he has any interest in the reality surrounding him and in those things which the mother country may offer him as objects of veneration.

In both the written and oral tests in arithmetic and geometry, the exercises should consist of simple applications of the rules studied, and should be such as to reveal especially the surety and promptness of the candidate in written calculations, and, in the case of the oral test, his training in mental arithmetic. In multiplication problems, the products should not have more than nine figures, and one of the factors must not have more than three figures. In division, the use of the so-called short rule is not to be required.

ENTRANCE EXAMINATION TO THE FOURTH YEAR OF THE GYMNASIUM

ITALIAN LANGUAGE

A written composition on a subject taken from life, or on a topic familiar to the student, or on some phase of the oral examination in the Italian or the Latin language, history, or geography. Duration, four hours.

Oral examination:

1. The candidate must show that he has read the following original works, or selections from these works. He is also required to read and comment on some passage selected by the Commission:

Homer: *Iliad* and *Odyssey*.

A collection of Italian short stories from the XIV to the XIX centuries, or, if the candidate prefers, Giusti's miscellaneous prose and poems.

Another work selected by the candidate from among the following:

Settembrini: *Ricordanze della Mia Vita* (wide selection); Abba: *Da Quarto al Volturno o Storia dei Mille*; Fucini, *Le Veglie di Neri* (school edition); Italo Balbo: *Da Roma a Odessa*.

2. Reading from and comment on an anthology appropriate to the first three years of the high school course, devoted largely to prose writers and poets of the XIX and XX centuries, and containing passages concerning Italian life of to-day.

3. Grammar analysis.

4. Recitation from memory of poems or prose passages of well-known artistic value.

LATIN LANGUAGE

Written examination:

Translation from Latin into Italian and from Italian into Latin of simple narrative passages. The use of the vocabulary is permitted. Duration, three hours.

Oral examination:

1. Translation on the blackboard of very short Italian sentences into Latin.

The examination must show that the candidate has read the following works, explaining the content of passages chosen by the Commission, and translating some of the passages also chosen by the Commission:

Eutropius: *Breviarium ab urbe condita* (a selection), or two *Vite* of Cornelio Nipote.

Phedrus: not less than 30 fables (for each of which a memory test may be given).'

Tibullus: a simple elegy; Ovid: passages taken from elegiac works.

In general, the examination must show that the early stages in humanistic education have been accompanied not only by the necessary exercises in grammar and word study, but also by observations and notes on the artistic and historical significance of the works read.

GENERAL CULTURE

Conversation on one of the following topics:

The earth in which we live, and the principal physical phenomena in relation to the needs and life of man.

The region in which the examination is held—its topography, products, industries, commerce, relation to the rest of Italy.

Italy in general. Communications (on a wall map). Foreign countries having important relations with Italy, means of communication, arts, crafts, professions, the family, the municipality, the State, the Régime.

The most representative figures in the history of Italy from the foundation of Rome to our times, with special reference to the *Risorgimento* (from a list to be submitted by the candidate).

DRAWING

1. Copy from the blackboard a simple ornamental drawing, having linear elements, drawn simultaneously with the examiner. Duration, not more than one hour.

2. Freehand drawing representing some object, toy, musical instrument, work tool, piece of furniture, animal, plant, landscape, etc.

The second part of the test in drawing should ascertain the candidate's powers of observation; it should not be a true and proper test of his ability.

ITALIAN

Written examination:

1. Write under dictation a passage of about ten printed lines from a modern prose writer having full meaning and understandable by children. Duration of the examination, half an hour, including the reading of the passage aloud by the examiner before dictating it.

2. A written composition on a topic suggested by the examination program on general cultural subjects, or on some topic familiar to the

pupil This test is to be given on a different day. Duration of the examination, three hours.

Oral examination:

1. Reading aloud of a prose passage or poem in a book selected by the Commission, and oral exposition of the passage read.

2. Summary of a story selected by the Commission from among those (not less than ten) indicated by the candidate, contained in a reader which the candidate will present to the Commission.

3 As referred to in I above, the candidate will be tested for his practical ability to recognize parts of speech in the passage read, their morphological peculiarities (gender, number, degrees of comparison, verbal forms, etc.), the essential parts of a sentence. The candidate should be given exercises in changing an indirect discourse to a direct discourse, or vice versa, and in changing moods and tenses of verbs, etc.

ARITHMETIC AND GEOMETRY

Written examination:

Solution of a problem related to the topics of the oral examination. Duration, two hours.

Oral examination:

Questions and exercises on the following subjects:

Addition, subtraction, multiplication and division with whole and decimal numbers; ordinary fractions and reduction of fractions to decimal numbers; reading and writing of Roman numerals; the decimal metric system; definition and nomenclature of the main geometrical plane and solid figures; triangles, quadrangles, trapezium, parallelogram, rectangles, squares, polygons, circumference, spheres, cones, prisms, circles, pyramids, cylinders, etc.

Practical rules for the measurement of the length of a circumference, area of the principal polygons, area of a circle, volume of a prism, pyramids, cylinders, cones, spheres.

HISTORY

Oral examination:

On one of the following subjects, which may also, if the commission desires, be developed in the form of a report on a brief historical lecture:

1. ancient Italy; 2 medieval Italy; 3. modern and contemporary Italy.

The somewhat analytical outline of the subjects makes it important that examiners avoid questions which presuppose wide historical vision and a knowledge of complex historical relations. As to the scope and

content of the narration, the material found in the best manuals for this grade of instruction is more than sufficient to satisfy the requirements.

The examination must aim at ascertaining whether the candidate has a knowledge of the more important facts and personages, and of the characteristic events in ancient and Italian history, and whether he possesses the ability to orient himself in the various periods and regions in which the events studied took place.

GEOGRAPHY

Oral examination on one of the following topics:

1. Fundamental facts of general geography: the heavens, the solar system, the earth, the year, longitude, latitude, races, peoples, religions, forms of government, colonies, political division of the globe.

2. Italy: boundaries, area, physiography, climate, commerce, population, mines, industry, agriculture, communications; organization of the Italian State; Fascist régime and its realizations; natural wealth and products of the various regions of Italy; Italian lands subject to other states; colonies; Italians abroad; the Vatican City.

3. Europe: physical geography, peoples, religion, civilization, economic development, political divisions, individual states of Europe, etc. etc.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Written: Duration of examination, three hours. The use of a vocabulary is permitted. Translation into the foreign language of an easy passage from an Italian author.

Oral: Writing simple sentences under dictation on the blackboard.

Reading and explanation of a passage from a modern author.

Oral translation from the Italian of sentences dealing with familiar topics.

Memory work.

The examination in the foreign language, coming as it does after two years of study, will aim at ascertaining the elementary knowledge acquired of the language.

MATHEMATICS

Oral examination: questions and exercises on the following:

Arithmetic: the four fundamental operations; decimal numbers; metric system; use of the parenthesis; numerical ratios; square root.

Geometry: straight lines, curves, segments, planes, semiplanes, angles, perpendicular lines, parallel lines, polygons, circumference, and circle,

arcs, sectors, prisms, parallelepipeds, pyramids, cylinders, cones, spheres, measurement of length, areas, volumes, angles, and arcs.

EXAMINATION FOR ADMISSION TO THE FIRST CLASS OF THE LYCEUM

ITALIAN LANGUAGE

Written examination: essay on a subject of the examination program in literary subjects; or an analysis of a poem or of a prose passage. Duration, five hours.

Oral test:

1. The candidate must have a knowledge, by direct reading, of the following works or selections (one for each group to be selected by the candidate when the group permits of a choice). The candidate is required to read and explain some passage chosen by the Commission, and explain the content of the selections or episodes also chosen by the Commission, with special reference to the characters, customs, emotions, and sentiments.

a) Virgil, *Aeneid*; b) Ariosto, *Orlando Furioso*, or, Tasso, *Gerusalemme Liberata* (school edition); c) Manzoni, *I Promessi Sposi*; d) a tragedy of Alfieri, or, a comedy of Goldoni, or a tragedy of Shakespeare having a Roman subject, or from the following group: *Macbeth*, *King Lear*, *Tempest*, *Othello*, *The Merchant of Venice*; or a tragedy of Schiller; or selected episodes from *Don Quixote*; or, Goethe, *Viaggio in Italia*, or other works from the same author.

2. Reading and comment from an anthology of authors from the XIV to the XX centuries, appropriate to the higher grades of the gymnasium, which also includes selections on history, geography, science, criticism, great foreign writers (in prose or poetry), and passages on the Italian life of today.

3. Recitation from memory of passages from prose or poetry of well-known artistic value.

In this examination the student must show that his ideas are well-ordered and well-correlated, and that he is able to grasp the dominant thought and the spirit of the page read. Even in this examination much importance is attached to the manner in which the candidate reads, or recites from memory; he should show that he comprehends the passage fully. In illustrating the poems, the candidate is required to have a knowledge of the Italian meter.

LATIN LANGUAGE

Written examination:

1. Translation from the Latin of a connected historical passage.

2. Translation into Latin of a connected passage from an Italian prose narrative. For each of these examinations the use of the vocabulary is permitted. Duration, four hours.

Oral test:

Translation of and comment on (including the meter) a passage selected by the Commission from among the following:

a) Virgil, *Aeneid* (one book); b) Ovid, *Metamorphoses* (anthology); c) Ovid, *Fasti* (anthology).

(The candidate must have learned by heart at least 300 verses from the above named poets.)

2. Exposition and interpretation of, and comment on, a piece selected by the Commission from among the following: a) Caesar, *De Bello Gallico* (one book); b) Cicero, an oration; c) Livy, anthology.

The candidate may substitute for *De Bello Gallico*, the *De Bello Civili*; for Livy he may substitute Sallust (a monograph or the greater part of it); for the oration of Cicero, a wide and appropriate selection from his letters.

GREEK

Written test:

Translation from the Greek of a simple and brief narration. The use of the vocabulary is permitted. Duration, four hours.

Oral test:

1. Translation into Greek of simple sentences written on the black-board.

2. Reading from an anthology containing brief and simple stories of mythological and historical content.

3. Exposition and translation of a passage selected by the Commission from among the following:

a) Xenophon, *Ciropeia* (one entire book or the greater portion of it); b) Lucian (some well-selected dialogues); c) several fables of Aesop.

The candidate may substitute for the *Ciropeia* of Xenophon, the *Anabasis* or the *Hellenica* (one book), or, even an anthology of selections from one or more of these works.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Written test:

1. Writing from dictation of a connected prose passage of about ten printed lines.

2. Translation from the Italian of a modern prose passage.

Duration: half an hour for the dictation, including the reading aloud of the passage by the examiner before dictating it; four hours for the translation of the Italian passage.

Oral test:

1. Reading and translation of, and comment on, a prose passage or poem selected by the Commission from an anthology devoted to the more representative authors from the beginnings of the XIX century.

2. Exposition of a literary work selected from among those submitted by the candidate, who is required to have read at least two long works, or, more than two short works.

3. Conversation in the foreign language on a familiar subject.

The foreign language examination, as shown by the program, must reveal that the pupil has a practical knowledge of the language and of some author. Naturally, the works studied by the candidate must be different from those on which he is examined in the Italian examination. However, they may also be taken from the same author.

HISTORY

Oral test:

On one of the following topics which may, at the discretion of the Commission, take the form of a report or of an historical lecture:

1. Old civilized peoples of the eastern Mediterranean and Asia Minor; Mycean civilization; new Greece; Greek expansion in Asia, etc.; Sparta, Persia, Athens in the age of Pericles, the crisis of the city state; Greek civilization in the Hellenic period; Italy and her oldest inhabitants; Rome, the Republic; Rome and Carthage; the Empire; the crisis of the III century; the fall of the Empire; Christianity; the Roman-Christian Empire; the rôle of Rome in the history of ancient civilization and its heredity; principal monuments of the period studied, etc.

The programs stress not only the relationship of historical events, but also the institutions, the political organizations, and their economic and social aspects. However, the examiner must not overlook the fact that in the higher classes of the gymnasium it has not been possible to devote much time to the systematic delineation of the picture of ancient life and civilization. Like the professor in school, the examiner must satisfy himself with carefully chosen facts which have real historical importance; he must be satisfied with an elementary but clear and concise knowledge of the geography, the political organization, the classes, the customs, the expression of art, the most significant monuments, etc. Similarly, the historical reading matter which the candidate is required to discuss must be among those works which have revealed to him characteristic aspects of ancient life and great figures.

Oral test on one of the following subjects:

1. General physical, economic and political geography of Asia: physical characteristics, climate, products, trades, conditions of human life. Races and peoples; religions. Political division. Special geography of Asiatic states and of large colonies. Italian interests.
2. Same for Africa. The Italian colonies in particular.
3. Same for the Americas. The Italians in the Americas.
4. Same for Oceania.
5. The polar lands.
6. Italian explorers in continents other than Europe, and in polar regions. The information given for the descriptive part of the examination for admission to the fourth year of the gymnasium applies also to this examination. Considering the wide scope of the program and the limited time allowed in the gymnasium, it is important for the candidate to show that he has an accurate idea of the type of civilization and of the life of the people about whom he speaks, and that his knowledge of physical and anthropological geography is of significance in his general vision of the earth and in human relations.

MATHEMATICS

Oral test: questions and exercises on

1. Algebra: rational relative numbers; algebraic fractions; first degree equations with one unknown quantity.
2. Geometry: straight lines; semi-straight lines; segments; planes; half-planes; angles; triangles and plane polygons; perpendiculars; circumferences; parallel lines; sum of the interior or exterior angles of a polygon; angles of a circle; fundamental graphic problems; equivalence of plane figures; equivalent polygons; transformation of polygons into other equivalents.

CLASSICAL MATURITY EXAMINATION

ITALIAN LITERATURE

Written examination:

The candidate will develop one of the two suggested themes, in accordance with his preference:

1. Delineation and evaluation of an important event or of a great figure in the political or literary history, within the limits of the oral examination.

2. Analysis of a poem or of a connected prose passage.

Duration, six hours. The candidate is not permitted to take the oral examination if he has not passed the written examination.

Oral examination:

Reading of and comment on a passage taken from two of the major authors mentioned below. It will be necessary for the candidate to refer to the entire work, to other works, to the poetical world, and to the life of the author, as well as to his position in the general scheme of literary history, which the candidate has studied from a text, and which he will point out to the examiners.

One of the two authors must be Dante; the other is selected by the Commission from the list presented by the candidate. Besides Dante, this list must include six major authors mentioned below, three of them belonging respectively to the XIV, XVI, XVIII centuries, and three to the XIX century, or the contemporary period.

XIV century: Dante, *Divina Commedia*, an entire section, and not less than 25 cantos of the other two parts; general plan of the work; extracts from the *Vita Nuova* and the *Rime*.

Petrarch, a selection of 30 compositions from the *Canzoniere*; selections from the *Trionfi*.

Boccaccio, general plan and 15 stories of the *Decamerone*.

XVI century: Ariosto, 15 cantos of the *Orlando Furioso* (or selected and connected episodes of about the same length) and extracts from the *Satire*.

Tasso, ten cantos from the *Gerusalemme Liberata* or episodes chosen as above.

Machiavelli, *Principe*, or extracts in proportionate length from the *Storie Fiorentine*.

XVIII century: Parini, *Il Giorno* and ten odes.

Alfieri, two tragedies and wide selections from his *Vita*.

XIX century or contemporary period:

Foscolo, *I Sepolcri*, the *Odi* and *Sonetti*, extracts from the *Grazie* and literary prose.

Monti, selections from the lyrics and poems.

Leopardi, ten poems and five *Operette Morali*; *I Pensieri*.

Manzoni, *Adelchi*, the lyrics, *I Promessi Sposi*.

Carducci, wide selection from his poems, especially from the *Rime Nuove* and *Odi Barbari*, extracts from his prose works.

Pascoli, wide selection from his poems.

D'Annunzio, selection from lyrics taken from one of his books of the *Laudi* (*Elettra*, *Alcione*, *Merope*, *Asterope*).

The oral examination must never be a memory test; it must serve to show the student's ability to understand and appreciate the thought of a

writer. This ability must combine all the special attitudes which the candidate has gradually been forming during the various stages of his preparation. Thus, for example, the manner in which the student reads will reveal whether he has fully understood the passage read, for in order to derive the full-meaning it is necessary that the historical, literary, and artistic knowledge which the candidate has acquired concur spontaneously in his interpretation.

LATIN LITERATURE

Written:

1. Translation from the Latin of a connected prose passage or poem.
2. Translation into Latin of a connected passage from a classical Italian prose writer.

The use of the vocabulary for each test is permitted. Duration, five hours.

Oral:

1. Impromptu translation of a simple passage, carefully selected, from a Latin prose writer or poet. The examiner will give all the explanations he may deem necessary to enable the candidate to orient himself.

2. Interpretation of and comment on (including meter) a passage selected by the Commission from among the following:

a) Catullus (selection), or Tibullus, or Propertius; b) Virgil, *The Georgics* (one book), or Lucretius (one book), or Virgil (at least five *Bucolics*); c) Virgil, *The Aeneid* (one book); d) Horace, *Satires* or *Epistles* (selection), or the whole *Ars Poetica*; e) Horace, *Lyrical Poems* (selection).

3. Exposition and interpretation of, and comment on, a passage selected by the Commission from among the following:

a) Cicero, Philosophic works (one book from the major works, and one whole minor work); b) Livy (one book); or, if the candidate prefers, Tacitus (a book or the greater portion of a book of the *Annals* or the *Historiae*, or an entire minor work).

The candidate may, if he so chooses, substitute for the philosophic works of Cicero, the rhetorical works, or two orations, or an adequate selection of the author's *Epistle*.

4. Exposition of, and comment on, a passage selected by the Commission from among: a) a comedy of Plato; b) a comedy of Terence; c) large anthology of Seneca, the philosopher; d) anthology of Pliny the younger; e) anthology of Martial; f) important selections from Minuccio Felice, Lattanzio, Ambrogio, Girolamo, Agostino; g) passages of special interest selected from among the principal Latin works of the XIV, XV,

and XVI centuries.

The candidate is required to talk on only one of the works included under one of the letters of paragraph 4, in accordance with his choice.

5. Questions a) on the aesthetic and historical development of Latin literature, with special reference to the writers whom the candidate has read in his Latin courses. The candidate must know the content of *De Bello Gallico* and the characteristics of Caesar as an historical figure. b) on the history of classical art (with the aid of graphic representations).

The writers, both of prose and of poetry are read above all with the object of enjoying their art; but in order to achieve this end, it will undoubtedly be useful to comment on them also from the historical point of view. Above all, it is important that the candidate show not only that he knows the Latin language and, as far as he can, through his studies, the classical civilization, but that he understands the relation of this civilization to modern life.

GREEK LITERATURE

Written: Translation from the Greek into Italian or into Latin, at the choice of the candidate, of a connected passage from a classical prose writer.

The use of the vocabulary is permitted. Duration, five hours.

Oral:

1. Impromptu translation of a simple prose passage.
2. Interpretation of and comment (including meter), but excluding the lyrical parts of the drama, on a passage selected by the Commission from among:
 - a) Homer, *Iliad* (at least one book); b) *Odyssey* (at least one book); c) a tragedy.

3. Exposition and interpretation of a passage selected by the Commission from among: a) Herodotus (one book); or, at the choice of the candidate, Xenophon (one book from the major works); b) Plato, (a dialogue or the *Apologia di Socrate*); c) Demosthenes (an oration).

The candidate may substitute Tucidides for Plato, provided that in his preparation in philosophy he has studied a dialogue of Plato; and he may, in lieu of Demosthenes, offer some other great classical orator.

Instead of the selections from the works which, according to the requirements of paragraphs 2 and 3, he must read in their entirety, the student may study an anthology of the entire work or of several works of the same type from the same writer (except the tragedy and the oration), provided that the selection is made with sufficient artistic and philosophical judgment.

4. Questions on the artistic and historical development of Greek

literature, with special reference to the writers whom the candidate has read in the gymnasium and lyceum, which must be mentioned in the programs presented by the institutes, or by the candidates if they have been educated at home or in private schools.

HISTORY

Oral:

On the following topics: one topic must be selected from among those included in numbers 33 to 45 of the original programs. The questions begin with the general conditions of the Roman Empire in the fourth and fifth centuries; Christianity; and the organization of the Church; the Teutons; the Goths; the Byzantine Empire; Greeks and Lombards in Italy; feudalism; the Spain of Philip II and of his successors; the independence of Holland; the civil wars of France; Elizabeth of England; Cromwell and the Stuarts, etc.; the Nordic states, etc.

The questions listed in numbers 33 to 45 deal with the restoration and the Holy Alliance; the secret organizations in Europe and Italy; liberal uprisings in 1820 and 1821; the *Giovine Italia*; Vincenzo Gioberti and neo-Guelphism; the first war of Italian independence (1848-49); republicans, federalists, and the monarchical orientation of Italy; Cavour; the decisive years of the Italian *Risorgimento*; the second war of independence; the *Mille*, etc.; Italy from Vittorio Veneto to the March on Rome; Mussolini, etc.

The examination must show not only whether the candidate knows the facts and institutions about which he speaks, but also whether he is able to orient himself quickly and with accuracy concerning the chronological and geographical data and above all whether he knows the value, the significance, and the bearing of events.

PHILOSOPHY

Oral:

The candidate must show that he knows, through direct study, four of the works included in the following list. This knowledge may be shown by the exposition of the entire work or of some important part of it, followed or accompanied by the illustration of some passage picked by the Commission. The candidate must show that he has a knowledge of the philosophical thought that preceded the work discussed, and of the development of scholarship as brought out in the history of philosophy, which he must have studied, and which he will point out to the Commission.

The four selections must include works of classical antiquity and of later periods, having both theoretical and moral interest. The works grouped under one heading are considered as one. The extracts and anthologies should aim to bring together from one or more works whatever is essen-

tial; care should be taken to give the subject an organic unity, both by the selections chosen and by appropriate summaries.

Ancient philosophy: Plato, Aristotle, Lucretius, Cicero, Seneca, Epictetto, Marcus Aurelius.

Christian philosophy: Augustine, Anselmo d'Aosta, Thomas Aquinas, Bonaventura.

Modern philosophy before Kant: Bruno, Galilei, Bacon, Descartes, Pascal, Hobbes, Spinoza, Locke, Leibniz, Berkeley, Hume, Vico, Condillac.

Modern philosophy of Kant and his successors: Kant, Fichte, Hegel, Schopenhauer, Herbart, Galluppi, Rosmini, Gioberti, Bentham, Spaventa.

One of the four works may be selected from the following list, provided that the other three include a work on ancient philosophy and that the examination include works of moral and theoretical interest.

Contemporary philosophy: Boutroux, Bergson, Blondel, Laberthonniere, Green, Emerson, James, Royce, Balmes, Fiorentino, Ausonio Franchi, Gentile.

It is expressly stated that the prescribed historical text proper must not be a part of the examination material; the candidate, therefore, must not be questioned on this text. The text is prescribed in the program merely for use as an historical outline of the philosophical works on which the examination is held. It is not desired to limit the historical information merely to biographies and monographs; if this were the case it would have been sufficient to prescribe only historical information on the thought of the four authors selected. The historical text must serve to place each author in his appropriate place in the development of philosophic thought. Naturally, the information which the candidate has on the history of philosophy must not be foreign to the general plan of the history of the world in which he lives and which he has studied, for philosophy should not be represented as something quite apart from life, when it is instead the development of a system of concepts which were formulated during certain periods by men who participated in the life of their times.

POLITICAL ECONOMY

Oral:

On one of the following topics: Theory of law; public and private law; the Fascist doctrine of State; the organization of the Italian State; fundamental lines in the administrative organization of the Italian State; the corporative organization; Church and State; the production of wealth; factors of production; the labor charter; exchanges; cost of production; free competition and monopoly; salaries and wages; labor market; money; credit; international commerce; commercial policy; protectionism; demographic data; state budget and national economy, etc.

MATHEMATICS

Oral, divided into two parts, A and B:

A. Relative measures; area of polygons; straight lines and planes in space; equivalent of solids; volume; cylinders, etc. etc.

B. Equations of the first degree radicals; second degree equations; arithmetic and geometric progressions; exponents and logarithmic equations; the trigonometric functions of *sein*, *cosein*, and *tangent*; application of algebra to geometry.

In part A of the examination, special attention is paid to problems which serve best to test the reasoning powers of the candidate. The examiner must assure himself that the candidate is able to understand the general lines of a strictly deductive problem.

In part B of the examination the stress is on theories of algorithmic developments; that is, the candidate must show that he has the ability to apply those theories to basic formulas. For this purpose the candidate must be able to work out one or more exercises under the guidance of the examiner.

It is presumed that the rational method has been used in the teaching of mathematics. It is understood that wherever feasible the teacher may have recourse to intuition. In other words, the equivalency of solid figures may be deducted either by the intuitive method or by comparing their area experimentally. It is also important that the general lines in the development of the various theories must be simple; that is, they must not be burdened with propositions which, though useful, are not necessary for the results to be attained. Besides, the development of the program must be harmonious throughout, so that no theory will receive more emphasis than is absolutely necessary for the purposes of teaching. The teacher should thus avoid devoting too much time to the development of algebraic or trigonometric theories at the expense of the geometric theories; for the latter must be integrated by appropriate exercises, and the pupils always require time to assimilate these.

PHYSICS

Oral: on some of the following topics: mechanics, heat, acoustics, electricity, magnetism, optics, spectroscopy, cosmography, and meteorology.

The candidate is required to have a knowledge of these topics and of their interrelation; but above all he must have a clear understanding of the fundamental concepts of physics, as, for example, force and mass, work and energy, potential power, etc. He must be familiar with the use of units of measurement. He must be able to interpret and use the analytical or graphic representation of physical phenomena, and to report on phenomena, especially those which commonly come under his observation. He must also be familiar with the names of famous scientists, especially the Italian scientists whose work and experiments have served as an impulse to the advancement of physics.

In the teaching of physics it is therefore important to stress the conceptual phase of the subject, the graphic representation of physical phenomena, the careful selection of experiments to be performed, the synthetic form of exposition so as to reduce mathematical calculation to a minimum, the proper interpretation of the more common phenomena of practical life, and, whenever possible, those problems which are of more scientific and national interest.

CHEMICAL AND NATURAL SCIENCES

Oral: On some of the following topics:

Chemistry: 1. *General*: acids, bases, salts, classification of elements, composition of matter.

2. *Inorganic*: hydrogen, oxygen, ozone, water, aloes, hydroxides, nitrogen, air, nitrous and nitric acid, sulphur, sulphurous and sulphuric acids; phosphorous, carbon, sodium, carbon oxide, calcium, silicum, zinc, magnesium, iron, steel, iron chloride, aluminium, radium, radio-active substances, etc.

3. *Organic*: General properties of organic compounds; simple and structural formulae; isometry and polymetry; chemical functions; hydrocarbons; alcohols; aldehydes; acetones; acids; simple and compound ethers; amines; amides and amino-acids; aromatic compounds; hydrates of carbon; fats; protein substances.

Mineralogy: minerals and rocks; morphological and chemical properties of minerals; description, deposit, location, and use of such minerals as diamond, graphite, sulphur, gold, silver, platinum, iron, brass, mercury, chalk, quartz, hematite, magnesium, celestite, barite, talc, rocks, etc.; combustible fossils and their importance to national economy.

Biology: 1. *General*: chemical composition of living matter; the cell; protoplasma; tissues; organs; apparatus; organisms.

2. *Animal biology*:

a) classification of animals; b) the different functions in man and mammifera, and the apparatus composing them.

3. *Vegetable*: characteristics of cell plants; vegetable tissues; parenchyma; fibrous tissues; vascular tissues; main division of plants; the functions of higher plants and the apparatus composing them.

4. *Living beings and environment*: mutual relations of plants and animals and their relation to the physical world; symbiosis; parasitism; saprophytism; parasitic protozoa; sterilization and spontaneous generation; immunization; parasitic worms in man and domestic animals; injurious insects and those useful to man; domestic animals and plants, etc.

In the teaching of the natural sciences and chemistry in the secondary

schools the object is to give the student an adequate knowledge of the world around him and of the laws which govern it; the teacher should not aim at making the student a specialist in minute structure or in complex hypothesis, nor burden his mind with a useless mass of names. Therefore, the examiner must not expect candidates to be able to discuss difficult theories; although, despite the efforts of the teachers, they have tried to memorize them mechanically. Much less should the teacher expect his pupils to have a knowledge of details, or of formulas, or of nomenclatures. These things make learning a very difficult process, and do not benefit the student in proportion to the efforts he has to expend. The examiner should, however, expect the candidate to have a clear knowledge of the facts, and he should try to assure himself that this knowledge is not based on memory work, but represents an understanding of the material studied, that his knowledge is so co-ordinated that he can perceive the correlation between living beings, and their physical and biological environments. Thus, the candidate should show that he understands the close harmony reigning in nature.

The examiner should determine whether the candidate can enliven his descriptions or clarify an idea by means of appropriate diagrams or sketches on the board; and whether he can recognize animals, plants or their parts, minerals, and rocks. The examiner should note whether the candidate has endeavored to increase his knowledge of science by means of personal collections, investigations, trips, and special readings. The examination should be conducted, as far as possible, with the aid of appropriate materials, models, and zoological, botanical, mineralogical and rock collections.

GEOGRAPHY

Oral: On some of the following topics:

a) *General*: the earth as a planet; the sea and its phenomena; the air; climates, etc.; influences of man on the physical and biological worlds; dynamic exogen; dynamic endogen; geology; anthropoid geography; etc.

b) *Special*: the political divisions of the earth; the physical geography of Italy; Italy after the World War and its agricultural, industrial, and commercial development; urban and rural Italy; demographic problems under the Fascist Government; Italians abroad; Italian colonies and their capacity for development; Italy in relation to other countries; the Mediterranean and Italy; other important modern states and their physical, economic, demographic, and political conditions; the more important economic and political problems of Italy.

The examiner must assure himself that the candidate understands the causal relations existing between the phenomena of the physical and human worlds; that he appreciates not only the influence of environment on man, but also the force which civilized man exercises on his physical and biological environments; that he has a clear idea of the distribution of man-

kind over the globe in relation to economic factors and to the different types of civilization; that he is familiar with the concept of the nation as the principle of expansion and as the basic factor in economic and political problems. All these points should be studied with special consideration to Italy. In short, the knowledge of geography required of a student completing the high school course must represent a synthesis of his knowledge of the physical, biological, and human worlds. The examination in geography must be conducted largely with the aid of maps.

HISTORY OF ART

Oral: On one of the following topics:

1. *The Paleochristian period*: architecture, painting, mosaic, and sculpture.
2. *The Roman period*: architecture, sculpture, mosaic, and painting.
3. *The Gothic period*: architecture, Italian sculpture in the XIII and XIV centuries.
4. *The Renaissance*: architecture, sculpture, and painting of the XV century.
5. *The later phases of the Renaissance*: architecture, sculpture, painting.
6. *The Baroque*: architecture.
7. *The Neoclassic and Romantic movements*: architecture, painting.
8. The main currents of Italian art from the middle of the XIX century to the present.

If possible the teaching of the history of art should be integrated by visits to the monuments and art collections of the region wherein the school is located. And, in the examination, the student should show not only a familiarity with the important literature on art listed in the programs and an understanding of the development of figurative arts in the most significant periods gained by the study of the works of the great representatives of the different epochs, but also a thorough knowledge of the portions of the programs which are closely related to the region in which he has completed his studies.

MATURITY EXAMINATION FOR STUDENTS FROM THE SCIENTIFIC LYCEUM

ITALIAN LITERATURE

The same program as that for the maturity examination of the classical lyceum.

LATIN LITERATURE

The same program as that for the classical maturity examination, except that instead of the *Satires* or *Epistles* of Horace (paragraph 2), the student may offer, if he desires, a comedy of Plato or of Terence; and for paragraph 4, instead of Plato or Terence, he may offer a selection of the *Satires* or of the *Epistles* of Horace, as in the classical maturity examination.

The general aim in the study of Latin literature is the same in the classical and the scientific lyceum, but the examiner must bear in mind that the pupil of the scientific lyceum has learned what he knows of the classical world only from the study of Latin literature.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

Written: Translation from the Italian into the foreign language of a prose passage taken from a contemporary writer. Duration of examination, four hours.

Oral:

1. Rapid reading and explanation of a passage selected by the Commission from a work in the language studied.

2. The candidate must show that he has read the original text of a work or of a number of selections from a work chosen by him from among the following authors:

For French: twenty-six representative authors including Rabelais, Montaigne, Corneille, La Fontaine, Moliere, Racine, Montesquieu, Hugo, etc.

For Spanish: eighteen representative authors including Luis de Léon, Santa Teresa, Cervantes, Lope de Vega, Calderón, Espronceda, Galdós, Valera, Ibanez, etc.

For German: twenty-three representative authors including Lessing, Goethe, Schiller, Grimm, Heine, Wagner, Nietzsche, F. G. Weber, Hauptmann, etc.

For English: the following representative authors: Shakespeare, Milton, De Foe, Swift, Sterne, Macpherson, Burns, Coleridge, Wordsworth, Byron, Shelley, Keats, Scott, Moore, Carlyle, Dickens, Macaulay, Browning, Tennyson, Emerson, Kipling, Wiseman, Longfellow, Whitman, Poe, Newman.

3. Discussion in the foreign language on literary history or on subjects of general culture. The candidate must know the main points in the historical and aesthetic development of the literature of the language.

The examination in a foreign language presupposes not only a knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, but the ability to discuss the content of a literary work. The candidate must show that he has read the original

work and not an Italian translation of it. The conversation should not consist merely of a simple summary of the work, but should refer to the characters and episodes, and, in general, to the peculiar artistic characteristics of the work. Both in this discussion and in the brief conversation on the literary history, which presupposes a general knowledge of the main points and of the major authors, the candidate must above all illustrate how the author under discussion is representative of his country.

HISTORY

The same program as that for the classical lyceum.

PHILOSOPHY

Oral: divided into two parts:

1. On any of the following topics concerning the historical problems of science:

Scientific knowledge in the speculation of the classical world; scientific ideas of the ancients; philosophy and the mediaeval scholastic encyclopaedia; special scientific studies; the Renaissance and naturalism (Leonardo, Copernicus, Telesio, Campanella, Gilbert); the Copernican system; the methodological problem (Bacon, Cartesio); Galileo, empiricism and rationalism; criticism of Kant; idealism; positivism; Italian idealism; the essence and value of science in modern thought; recent scientific theories (Maxwell, Mach, Poincaré, Croce, Gentile).

2. On any two of the works or groups of works included in the maturity examination programs of the classical lyceum. The choice is to be made by the candidate.

The candidate is required to have a direct knowledge of the work studied. He is required to give an exposition of its contents or of some important part of it. This is to be followed or accompanied by an illustration of some passage selected by the Commission. The student must know the fundamental philosophic principle of the work.

The two works must refer to two different periods of the history of science, one of which must be after the Renaissance. One of the works chosen may be by one of the authors listed in paragraph 1, even though he may not be included among the authors selected for the maturity examination in the classical lyceum.

The program of the examination includes an historical outline of the problem of science, which the student has learned from a text. Such an outline if included in the general scheme of philosophic speculation will enable the candidate to point out the principles underlining the two works he has studied. But he must above all show that he has understood the trend of the problems, and the significance of the solutions adopted by the authors he has selected for discussion.

POLITICAL ECONOMY

The same program as that for the classical lyceum.

MATHEMATICS

Written: The solution of a problem included in the subject of the oral examination. Duration of the test, five hours.

Oral: Includes subjects in each of the two following sections, A and B.

A: 1. Measurement of one area in respect to another; concept of real numbers; operations with real numbers; similarity of plane figures, especially triangles and polygons; construction of a regular pentagon and pentadecagon.

2. Area of polygons; rectification of the circumference and square of a circle.

3. Straight lines and planes in space; dyads; triads; angled; equality of spacial figures; polygons, especially prisms and pyramids.

4. Equivalence of solids; volume of solids and rules for finding the volume of important polygons.

5. Cylinders; cones; spheres; spherical triangles; area and relative volumes.

6. Similitude in space; special cases.

7. Divisibility.

8. Functions.

B: Calculus of radical numbers; powers with fractional exponents; second degree equations or reducible to the second degree: examples on the systems of equations of degree higher than the first, to be solved by equations of the first and second degrees.

Arithmetical and geometrical progressions.

Diagrams: Graphic representation of a variable, especially of $ax + b$ and $ax^2 + a : x$. Physical and mechanical interpretations.

Logarithmic equations, curves, and tables, and application to the calculus of numerical expressions; trigonometric functions; curves of sines and tangents; Newton's binomium; application of algebra to geometry; first and second degree problems, and construction of formulas.

The information given for the corresponding examinations in sections A and B for the classical lyceum applies here. The only difference is that six headings are required in section A in the scientific lyceum, and only four in this section in the classical lyceum. The six headings must include 1, 2, 3, 4, and 8. In part B of the examination greater security in the calculation and greater speed in the solution of the problems, especially of geometric exercises, are required.

PHYSICS

The same program as that for the maturity examination in the classical lyceum. The same information holds here as for the classical lyceum, except that candidates from the scientific lyceum must possess a more profound knowledge of the various theories, and must know how to solve, with sufficient speed, simple exercises relating to the units of measure of prompt application to the things studied.

It is also presumed that students have had some laboratory practice, within the possibilities of the resources available, and, in every case, that they possess the laboratory experience necessary to help them in understanding the use of apparatus.

NATURAL SCIENCES AND CHEMISTRY

The same program as that for the maturity examination for the classical lyceum.

GEOGRAPHY

The same program as that for the maturity examination for the classical lyceum.

DRAWING

Graphic test: At the suggestion of the Commission, the candidate will make a sketch of an architectural or decorative piece from a photograph, print, or chalk drawing; or, a sketch of a real object of applied art.

The candidate will add to his sketch illustrative and comparative notes on the style, the period, and the characteristics of the material drawn. The notes thus added by the candidate will be taken into consideration in evaluating the work, but the Commission should bear in mind the great difficulties which may be encountered in the characterization of a style. Duration of the examination, eight hours, including two rest hours to be taken at intervals.

The examiners will take into consideration the student's powers of observation as shown by his treatment of the essential elements, and by his ability to keep in proper proportion the various parts of the work reproduced. The drawing examination presupposes that the student has pursued a course with a cultural trend, that is, a theoretical and practical course on the history of art, limited however to architecture and to the so-called minor arts.

ENTRANCE EXAMINATION FOR THE FIRST CLASS OF THE
HIGHER COURSE OF THE NORMAL INSTITUTE

ITALIAN LANGUAGE

Written test on a subject taken from real and familiar life, or on a topic taken from the program of the oral examination in the Italian and Latin languages, history, and geography. Duration of test, four hours.

Oral test:

1. The candidate must know through direct reading the works or selections from works listed below. He is required to read and explain some passage selected by the Commission, and explain some particular point or episode also chosen by the Commission:

Ariosto, *Orlando Furioso* (selected and correlated episodes); Tasso, *Gerusalemme Liberata* (selected and correlated episodes); a comedy of Goldoni and a tragedy of Alfieri; either two complete autobiographical works, or a wide selection picked by the candidate from among the following: Alfieri, Pellico, Giusti, Settembrini, Duprè, Farina, Fucini.

2. Reading and comment from a suitable anthology of Italian and foreign prose writers and poets of the XIX and XX centuries. The anthology must contain passages on present-day Italian life.

3. Synthetic analysis of phrases and sentences.

4. Recitation from memory of poems or prose passages of well-known artistic value.

The oral examination must always be preceded by an adequate test to determine whether the student has read the selected passage. Due consideration must be given to the manner in which the candidate reads or recites from memory. Reference must be made to the personalities, places, history, customs, and sentiments to which the passage may be related. But this requirement must not be at the expense of the interpretation of the passage in its logical development, significance, and expression. The candidate's interpretation of the passage will show whether he is able to grasp what he reads, and how well he can talk and converse on the material read.

LATIN LANGUAGE

Written test:

1. Translation from Latin of a connected narrative passage.
2. Translation into Latin of a simple passage.

The use of the vocabulary is permitted for each of these tests.

Duration of examination, four hours.

Oral test:

1. Translation into Latin, on the blackboard, of phrases or very short Italian sentences. The object is to test the candidates vocabulary and his knowledge of form and syntax.

2. Translation of and comment (including the meter) on a passage selected by the Commission from (a) Ovid, *Metamorphoses* (anthology); (b) Ovid, *Fasti* (anthology); or the poems of Tibullus (anthology); (c) Phedrus, at least twenty fables.

3. Exposition, interpretation of and comment on, a passage selected by the Commission from Caesar, *De Bello Gallico* (one book).

The same information as that given for the program of the Latin examination for admission to the fourth class of the gymnasium applies here. In his comment on Phedrus the candidate must not fail to compare the works of this author with the fables of Aesop (in Italian translation) or of some modern writer.

HISTORY

Oral test on one of the topics listed below, which may, at the discretion of the Commission, be developed in the form of a report on some short reading from the historical sections of the Old Testament; from Herodotus, Xenophon, Tucilide, Plutarch, or Polibio; or from Livy, Cicero, Caesar, Tacitus, or Svetonio (in translation).

1. *The Hebrews*, their location, and the sources of their history. Peoples with whom the Hebrews were in contact; the Patriarchs; Egypt and Moses; Giosuè and the Judges; Samuel, the monarchy, the scism; prophetism; the Kingdoms of Israel and of Judah; foreign domination and the Persian conquest; Palestine under the Macedonians, the Egyptians and the Syrians; the New Hebrew Kingdom; its political and religious conditions; the Roman dominion; Hebrew civilization.

2. Ancient Greece: the heroic age, Sparta, Lycurgus, the Messeniche wars. Athens: Solon, Draco, Pisistratus, Clisthenes. The principal Greek colonies; the Persians wars; the century of Pericles; war between Sparta and Athens; Spartan and Teban aegemony; the Macedonian Empire; the Roman conquest. Brief and elementary information on religion, representatives of Greek cities, national games, art, and the every-day life of the ancient Greeks.

3. *Ancient Italy*: The same program as that for admission to the fourth grade of the gymnasium, with greater emphasis on public and private life; the military organizations, religion, the principal public works in the imperial age; and the spread of Roman civilization.

The information concerning ancient history accompanying the history

program for admission to the fourth class of the gymnasium applies also here.

GEOGRAPHY

Oral test on one of the following topics which may, at the discretion of the Commission, take the form of a short lecture on geography.

1. Fundamental data on general geography: the solar system; the earth; the satellites; the year and its divisions; latitude and longitude; maps; the sea, hills, and mountains; surface and underground movement of water; rivers; lakes; human races; religions; forms of government; colonies; political divisions of the globe.

2. Italy: boundaries, area and physical characteristics, climate, flora; population, resources, commerce, communications, organization of the Italian State, Fascist achievements, natural wealth and products of the various Italian regions; principal cities and monuments; Italian lands subjected to other states; colonies; Italians abroad; the Vatican city and the Catholic world; San Marino.

3. Europe: physical geography, peoples, religions, civilizations, economic developments, political divisions.

Individual European states: inhabitants, religions and governments; principal centers; colonial dominions; commercial relations with Italy.

4. Continents other than Europe: limited to the principal physical characteristics, natural wealth, political divisions, life, and Italian interests. Polar lands.

The information accompanying the program of the geography examination for admission to the fourth grade of the gymnasium applies also here.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Written:

1. Writing under dictation of a connected prose passage of about ten printed lines.

2. Translation of a prose passage from the Italian.

Duration of examination, half an hour for the dictation, including the reading of the passage aloud by the examiner before dictating it; three hours for the translation.

Oral:

1. Reading and translation of, and comment on, a prose passage or poem selected by the Commission from an anthology containing the more representative authors from the earliest times to the twentieth century.

2. Simple conversation in the foreign language on subjects familiar to the candidate.

3. Exposition of a literary work selected from among those submitted by the candidate; the candidate is required to present at least two works from different authors.

4. Recitation from memory of selected passages.

In the foreign language examination it is necessary to bear in mind that in the higher course the candidate will not continue the study of the language, and that the examination covers a three-year course. Therefore, a wider practical knowledge than that possessed by candidates for admission to the fourth grade of the gymnasium, but a more limited cultural background than that possessed by candidates for admission to the first grade of the lyceum, should be required.

MATHEMATICS

Written: a problem from the subject of the oral examination. Duration of examination, three hours.

Oral: questions and exercises on the following subjects:

Arithmetic: the four fundamental operations; highest common divisor; the four fundamental operations containing fractions; decimal numbers; metric system; ratio; square root.

Algebra: relative rational numbers and the four fundamental operations; polygons; algebraic fractions; equations; first degree problems.

Geometry: straight lines, segments, planes, semi-planes, angles, triangles, polygons, inequality between the elements of a triangle, circumference and circle, parallel lines, angles of a circle, fundamental graphic problems.

In the examination the candidate must know how to orient himself in the solution of a problem, how to work out simplifications quickly and accurately, and how to make arithmetical or algebraic calculations. He must also know the geometric theories of the program so as to be able to apply them to simple problems. He is also required to solve problems on the measurement of lengths, areas, and volumes.

DRAWING

The examination in drawing consists of a simple decorative composition having either geometric or natural or ornamental elements, or taken from ordinary objects, which the candidate will execute without the use of models. He is required to adapt the decoration to a geometric form which the examiner will determine at the beginning of the examination. Duration of the examination, four hours.

The examiner will note especially the candidate's good taste, and his technical ability of expression.

MUSIC AND CHORAL SINGING

The candidate must:

- a) write under rhythmic dictation brief and easy rhythmic notes in the simple fundamental tempos: 2¼, 3¼, 4¼.
- b) read at sight (measured reading) a simple gamut written in the keys of *sol* and *fa* (alternate), with the use of compound tempos (ternary movements): 6¼, 9¼, 12¼.
- c) sing at sight a simple gamut in violin key with very limited vocal extension and written in a key having not more than two sharps or two flats.
- d) know the elements of musical theory: major and minor scales, keys, intervals, principal chords, etc.

Musical Instrument

PIANOFORTE

The candidate must:

- a) play a piece selected at random from among three freely chosen and prepared by him from the following works: twenty-five elementary pieces of Bertini (opus 137); thirty new pieces of Czerny's mechanism (opus 849), and fifteen pieces from Kohler (opus 224.)
- b) play a piece selected at random from among three freely chosen and prepared by him from the following works: Clementi sonatas (the simplest ones), Steibelt sonatas (opus 49); Schumann: *Album per la Giovantù*, (opus 68, the easiest pieces).
- c) read at sight a very simple musical composition for the piano.

VIOLIN

The candidate must:

- a) play some scales (the easiest at three octaves) and the arpeggios to the third position.
- b) play a piece in mixed positions (from the first to the third position) designated by the Commission from among the two he has prepared and freely selected from the methods of Campagnoli, De Beriot, Hohman, Piot, and other good composers.
- c) be able to read at sight, and reply to questions which the Commission may wish to ask him on the bowing, battuto style of bowing in strict time, etc.

QUALIFYING EXAMINATION FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

ITALIAN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

Written:

Analysis of a poem or of a connected prose passage. Duration, six hours.

The candidate is not permitted to take the oral examination if his written test is unsatisfactory.

Oral:

1. The candidate must know a work selected by the Commission from each of the groups given below; at least one work from the first group; four works, including two modern authors after Manzoni, from the second group; and one from each of the other two groups must be offered:

a) Cellini, *Vita* (wide selection); Tasso, *Lettere* (wide selection); Goldoni, extracts from his *Memorie*; selected pages from the autobiographies of Rousseau, Froebel, Pestalozzi; Leopardi, *Lettere* (wide selection); De Sanctis, *La giovinezza*.

b) Homer, *Iliad* or *Odyssey* (selection of connected passages, including a narration of the most essential parts of the poem); Virgil, *Aeneid* (selection of connected passages, including a narration of the essential parts of the poem); Dante, *Divina Commedia*, selected cantos from the three divisions and general plan of the work; Petrarch, a selection of at least thirty poems from the *Canzoniere*; Ariosto, *Orlando Furioso* (ten cantos); Parini, *Il Giorno* (at least one part), and ten odes; Foscolo, *I Sepolcri*; Manzoni, *I Promessi Sposi* and some lyrics; Leopardi, at least ten poems and five *Operette Morali*; Carducci, wide selection of poems, especially from the *Rime Nuove* and *Odi Barbare*, and prose selections; Pascoli, wide selection of poems; D'Annunzio (selection of lyrics from some of the books of the *Laudi*, *Elettra*, *Alcione*, *Merope*, *Asterope*). The *Divina Commedia* must be included among the works offered in this group.

c) Aeschylus or Sophocles, or Euripides: a tragedy; Shakespeare, a tragedy; Schiller, a tragedy, Goethe, *Faust* (first part); Alfieri or Manzoni, a tragedy; Molière or Goldoni, a comedy.

d) Dino Compagni and Giovanni Villani (extracts from the chronicles); Machiavelli, selected passages from the works; Cuoco, *Saggio sulla Rivoluzione*; Balbo, *Sommario della Storia d'Italia*; Gioberti, selected passages from the *Primato* and the *Rinnovamento*; De Sanctis, *Storia della Letteratura Italiana*, or *Saggi Critici*; Carlyle, *the Heroes*; Oriani, selected pages; Mussolini, *Speeches* (selection).

The examination will consist of the exposition of some episode or part of the work, of the reading and explanation of some passage, with observations on the psychology, history, or aesthetics, depending on the nature of

the work. The candidate must be able to place the author in his historical position.

2. Recitation from memory of poems of major Italian poets, with special reference to the poets of the XIX century, selected by the candidate.

3. The oral test may be integrated either by sight reading, and the exposition of a brief passage from an Italian writer, selected so as to show the candidate's ability to understand a connected thought, or by a brief discussion on the written theme, if the Commission deems it necessary for the candidate to explain some passage.

The oral examination in the Italian language and literature must show the candidate's ability to understand attitudes of the human mind, and to appreciate the various aspects of reality in expressions of art.

In the case of foreign authors, the candidate's knowledge of the historical background of a work may be limited to what is necessary to understand the chief characteristics of the work. In the case of works belonging to classical and Italian literatures, the candidate's knowledge must be more complete.

Special attention shall be paid to the manner in which the candidate reads or recites from memory; his intonation should bear witness to his comprehension and appreciation of the passage.

LATIN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

Written:

1. Translation from the Latin of a connected prose passage.
2. Translation from the Italian of a connected prose passage.

For each of these tests the use of the vocabulary is permitted. Duration, five hours.

Oral:

1. Translation at sight of a simple carefully selected passage from a Latin prose author. The examiner should give all the information necessary to orient the student.

2. Interpretation and comment (including the meter, except in the case of a comedy) of a Latin passage selected by the Commission from among the following: a) Virgil, *Georgics* (a book); Virgil, *Aeneid* (a book); Horace, *Satires* or *Epistles* (selection); or if the candidate desires, selections from the *Poems* of Horace.

3. Exposition and interpretation of, and comment on, a passage selected by the Commission from among:

a) Cicero, *Opere Rettoriche* (a book); or, *Opere Filosofiche*, or an oration, or a wide selection from the letters.

b) Livy (a book); or, if the candidate desires, Tacitus (anthology).

4. Exposition and interpretation of, and comment on, a passage selected by the Commission from among:

a) Plato (a comedy); b) Seneca, the philosopher (anthology); c) Quintilian (a book or an anthology); d) Pliny the younger (anthology); e) the most important pages from Minuccio, Ambrogio, Girolamo, Agostino, and some of the best Ambrosian hymns.

The candidate is required to discuss only one topic included under one of the letters of section four, in accordance with his selection.

5. Questions on the development of Latin literature, with special reference to the writers whom the candidate has read throughout his course of study. A list of these authors will be made in the collective and individual programs.

Simple questions on the history of classical art and on its most important monuments (with the aid of graphic reproductions).

In this part of the examination students are not required to be as profound as those who take the classical maturity examination.

PHILOSOPHY AND PEDAGOGY

Oral:

1. Knowledge and evaluation of the literature for children.

2. The candidate must know by direct study three of the works included in the lists for the maturity examination for the classical lyceum—the first emphasizing the aesthetic problem, the second the problem of knowledge, and the third the moral problem. In this test the candidate is required to know the content of the work and the problem presented from the point of view of pedagogy, and he must explain passages to illustrate his point.

3. The history of educational institutions and of pedagogical thought.

The candidate's knowledge must be integrated by the exposition of a classical and a modern or contemporary work on pedagogy, selected from the following:

Classical works: Comenio, Silvio Antoniano, *Ratio Studiorum*, Locke, Basedow, Vico, Rousseau, Kant, Cuoco, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Herbert, Schelling, Necker de Saussure, Richter, Rosmini, Ausonio Franchi, Giovanni Bosco.

Modern and contemporary works: Capponi, Lambruschini, Gioberti, Mazzini, De Sanctis, Gabelli, Ardigò, James E. Caird, Arnold, Laberthonnière, Boutroux, Gentile.

4. Political economy. The same program as for the maturity examination for the classical lyceum.

HISTORY

The same program as for the maturity examination for the classical lyceum.

MATHEMATICS

Written:

A problem taken from the program of the oral test, excluding rational arithmetic. Duration of the examination, four hours.

Oral:

Questions and problems on the following topics:

Rational arithmetic; numeration; the four fundamental operations; divisibility of numbers by 2, 3, 5, and 9; fractions and decimal numbers, etc.

Algebra: first degree problems; square root problems; etc.

Geometry: measurements; geometrical proportions; triangles; polygons; area of polygons; rectification of the circumference and squaring of a circle; straight lines and planes in space; polyads.

PHYSICS

Oral: On some of the following topics:

Movements of bodies; work and energy; simple machines; pressure of liquids; pressure of air; temperature and heat; fusion and solidification; vaporization and liquefaction; thermal machines; sound; luminous objects; shadow; eye and optical instruments; magnetism; electricity; electric current; ways of producing and utilizing an electric current; radio-telegraphy and radio-telephony.

Clearness of expression is essential in this examination, since the candidates are preparing themselves for the teaching profession.

CHEMISTRY, NATURAL SCIENCES, AND HYGIENE

Oral: On some of the following topics:

Chemistry: chemical phenomena and laws; atomic theory; acids; bases; salts; principal elements and compounds; their distribution in nature; their preparation and their commercial importance; oxygen; hydrogen; water; chlorine; hydrochloric acid; nitrogen; atmospheric air; ammonia; nitric acid; sulphur; sulphuric acid; phosphorous, etc.

Characteristics of organic compounds; the more important homologous series (hydrocarbons, alcohols, acids, organic bases, carbohydrates, fats, and protein substances).

Mineralogy: minerals and rocks; chemical characteristics and tests for

the recognition of minerals; daimonds; gold; silver; platinum; iron; brass; mercury; quartz; principal rocks, etc.

Biology: Chemical composition of living matter; cells; tissues; organs; apparatus; organisms; composition of cells and cellular multiplication; description of animals; functions of human organs; digestion; circulation; respiration; skeletons and muscles; nervous system and sense organs; description of the more common plants belonging to large vegetable groups; function of a higher plant; living beings and environment; symbiosis; hunting and fishing.

Hygiene: function and importance of hygiene; infectious diseases; contagious and parasitic diseases; occupational diseases and occupational hygiene; hygiene of the home and school; hygiene of the body; food hygiene; physical education; hygiene of clothing; influence of hygiene on disease and mortality.

Natural Sciences: The information given under this subject for the classical lyceum examination applies in the case of the examination for elementary school teachers. The normal institutes must furnish the future teachers with the knowledge indispensable for the exercise of their mission and with an appreciation of the works and phenomena of nature; this ability to appreciate nature will, better than anything else, place them in a position to teach with that warmth and color which are indispensable if their work is to prove interesting and useful. More than in the case of candidates from other types of secondary school, the examiner must take into account the efforts made by the prospective teacher to form a scientific collection. This collection will tend to demonstrate the aptitude of the candidate for the teaching profession.

GEOGRAPHY

Oral: On some of the following topics:

A. *General Geography:* planets; maps; distribution of lands and seas; metereological phenomena; climates; man and the biological world; surface and underground waters; glaciers; functions of organisms and of man; vulcanos and earthquakes; rocks and fossils; races; peoples; nations; languages and religions; distribution of man in the globe; emigrations; colonies.

Special Geography: Prospectus of the political divisions of the world; geographical and political Italy; fundamental physical features of Italy, and its agricultural and commercial development; rural and urban Italy; the demographic problem under the Fascist Government; Italians abroad; Italian colonies and their capacity for development; Italy in the Mediterranean; physical, economic, and political conditions of the countries of the world which have close relations with Italy.

The examiner must discover whether the candidate has studied the subject in a synthetic and rational manner, so that he understands the

relations of the physical and biological worlds and their manifestations in the human world. Thus, for example, the difference in the distribution of solar energy over the surface of the earth in accordance with the latitudes and seasons, and climates; the vegetable and fauna associations; and the special conditions of the life of man must be closely connected in the mind of the pupil.

This examination is to be conducted with the aid of maps to which the candidate should refer in the course of his discussions.

MUSIC AND CHORAL SINGING

The candidate must:

a) write under rhythmic dictation brief and simple phrases (rhythmic) in compound tempos (ternary movements): 6:8, 9:8, 12:8 (optional, a brief and easy dictation of a melody in simple tempos).

b) sing at sight a simple song suited to the voice of a child in the fifth grade of the elementary school. The song shall have a maximum of five sharps and five flats, and a simple melodious diatonic movement. The observation made in Section C of the examination for the lower course of the institute applies in this section also.

d) the same as in section d) of the lower course; in addition, a knowledge of all the great and minor musical intervals, etc.

e) The candidate must have a knowledge of the fundamental facts concerning the training of the voice of the child, and be familiar with choral literature, especially for children.

f) Finally, he must show that he knows the historical development of the most important musical manifestations from the earliest times to the end of the nineteenth century.

Musical Instrument

PIANOFORTE

The candidate must:

a) play a composition selected at random from three he has prepared and which he has freely selected from the following works: Berens, *La Velocità* (op. 61); Bertini, *Studi* (second grade); Heller, *Studi*, (op. 45-49) for rhythm and expression;

b) play a simple selection from ancient Italian authors, a selection from Bach (prelude, simple pieces), and an easy piece from Handel, the piece to be selected by the candidate.

c) play a simple sonata chosen by the candidate from among the classics: Haydn, Mozart, or Beethoven (op. 49); and a piece selected from the romantic or modern composers, for example, Mendelssohn (twelve

pieces for youth), or a simple *romanza* without words, Schumann (op. 118); Chopin (mazurke); Weber (piano pieces); Raff (op. 75), Grieg (the simplest lyrical compositions); Sgambati, Martucci.

d) read at sight a passage of vocal choral music with simple piano accompaniment, pointing out the melody with his voice.

VIOLIN

(About the same as for the pianoforte).

HARMONIUM

(About the same as for the pianoforte).

DRAWING

The test will consist of:

1. Drawing on the blackboard, with white and colored crayons, of a subject taken from an elementary school lesson. The subject must illustrate a poem or a prose passage, a lesson on some simple experiment in physics, or on some work tools, etc.; or it may even illustrate a lesson in geography or in elementary geometry.

2. Preparing on the blackboard of a small drawing model to be copied by pupils of the fourth or fifth grade.

Though the examiner should not require a rigorous application of the fundamental rules of perspective, still he should ascertain whether the candidate is really prepared to draw what he sees, and whether he knows how to utilize sketches to make his class work clear and practical and gain the attention of his pupils.

In evaluating the candidate's drawings the examiner will take into consideration the difficulties presented by the subject (especially if it involves the illustration of some passage read), the relation between the drawing and the theme assigned, the proportions, and the taste of the candidate.

AGRICULTURE AND RURAL BOOKEEPING

(For graduates of the institutes in accordance with article 3 of the law of July 2, 1929, No. 1272):

Oral: On one of the following topics:

1. The development of agriculture in Italy and in the colonies, in accordance with the policies of the Fascist régime.

2. Drainage and the "battle of the wheat"; forestry problems; significance of the feast of the trees; prairies and pastures; the zootechnical problem; large and small agricultural industries; the rational preparation of soils; the agricultural development of the region for large cultivations; principal industries; export commerce; general confederations of agriculture; relations between employers and employees; agricultural credit.

The candidate must know the various aspects of the principal agricultural problems—political, economic, technical, practical—in relation to the vivifying activity of the Fascist régime; but above all he must show that he has a true understanding of the importance of agriculture to Italy, and an appreciation of the fascination of country life which should strengthen his faith in the ever more prosperous future of Italy.

APPENDIX E

DRAFT OF THE PROPOSALS MADE BY THE ROYAL COMMISSION TO SERVE AS A GUIDE IN THE COMPILATION OF A BILL FOR THE REFORM OF HIGHER EDUCATION¹

GENERAL REGULATIONS

I. The object of higher education is to impart a scientific culture along professional lines, and to promote the progress of science.

Freedom of instruction is guaranteed both to official professors and to private docents.

II. Royal universities and all other institutes of higher education enjoy a legal personality and educational, administrative and disciplinary autonomy under the supervision of the State. The State exercises this supervision, in accordance with the powers given to it by law, through the rectors or directors who are appointed by the King on the proposal of the college of professors.

Students and professors are required to observe the special educational and disciplinary regulations of the faculties and schools.

III. The administration of universities is entrusted to the Academic Senate, which is composed of the rector, who presides over it, of his predecessor in office, and of the deans and directors of faculties and schools.

In institutes of higher learning the Administrative Council exercises the powers of the Academic Senate. This council is composed of the director, who presides over it, the assistant director, and of three members elected from the ordinary and extraordinary professors.

In the exercise of administrative duties affecting the budget, a representative from the Ministry of Public Instruction, and a comptroller to represent the Ministry of the Treasury are included in the Academic Senate or in the Administrative Council.

Chartered associations which contribute toward the maintenance of universities or institutes in amount not less than ten per cent of the

¹*Ministry of Public Instruction—Royal Commission for the Reorganization of Higher Education. Reports and Proposals. Part I (General Report by Prof. L. Ceci and Draft of Proposals). Rome, Tipografia Operaia Romana Cooperativa, 1914, p. 413-422.*

amount given by the State also have the right to be represented in the Academic Senate or in the Administrative Council.

ORDINARY AND EXTRAORDINARY PROFESSORS—ASSISTANTS

IV. No one may be appointed official professor in universities and institutions of higher learning unless he is a citizen of Italy or an Italian living abroad.

V. Appointments of extraordinary and ordinary professors in universities and higher institutes are made on the basis of competitive examinations. The following exceptions are made: First, when Article 21 of the Consolidated Law on higher education may be applied to the person to be appointed full professor, on the proposal of the faculty and with the approval of the higher council of public instruction; second, when the vacancy to be filled is that of an extraordinary professor in a school of applied engineering or in a higher technical institute in a strictly technical subject. In the latter case, the appointment may be made without a competitive examination, provided the candidate can give ample proof of his mastery of the subject by showing the work he has accomplished or the positions he has held relating to that subject.

VI. When a professorship is vacant, the faculty or school to which it belongs must, within a period specified by the regulation, propose the manner in which the vacancy is to be filled, in accordance with the present law.

VII. Competitive examinations shall be held for the grade of extraordinary professor. Only in exceptional cases may a competitive examination be held for the rank of ordinary professor.

VIII. Competitive examinations shall be held on the basis of degrees and publications of the candidates. Candidates in a competitive examination shall be required to take part in a discussion concerning their respective titles, in a manner to be fixed by the regulation.

IX. The examining commissions for university competitive examinations shall be composed of five members. One of the members shall be designated by the faculty or school in which the professorship is vacant, even though the person so designated may not be a member of the faculty or school. The other four members shall be proposed by the permanent ordinary and extraordinary professors of the faculty or school to which the vacant professorship normally belongs. The vote shall be secret and limited, in accordance with the regulation, to the professors who teach or have taught the same subject, or to distinguished experts in the subject or related subjects. The Minister shall appoint the four commissioners from among the first ten elected professors. Commissioners thus appointed may not decline the nomination, except for legitimate excuses acceptable to the Minister.

X. The commission shall make no statement concerning the eligibility of the candidates. It shall propose no more than three candidates in the order of merit; no two candidates shall be placed on exactly the same basis, and it shall write a report on the candidates for the position.

The documents relating to the competitive examination shall be sent to the Higher Council, which, in turn, shall submit them to the Minister, if necessary with its own observations.

XI. The result of a competitive examination shall be valid for the university or institute for which the examination was held, and for the vacant professorship.

However, within a year of the decision of the Higher Council, in accordance with Article 50 of the Consolidated Law, other vacancies may also be filled by the second and third persons on the graded list, on the proposal of the faculty or school. In all cases, however, the second and third persons designated may be appointed only as extraordinary professors.

XII. Candidates in a competitive examination who refuse to accept the appointment must reimburse the State for the expense incurred in connection with the holding of the examination, if their refusal has rendered the competitive examination ineffective.

XIII. An extraordinary professor shall be appointed by the Ministry for one year and may, of course, be reappointed unless he is removed from office by a decree of the Minister, on the proposal of the faculty or school.

After three years of uninterrupted service, he becomes a member of the permanent staff with the approval of the faculty; he obtains this position by royal decree.

XIV. Extraordinary professors who have become members of the permanent staff may, on the proposal of the faculty or school, and with the approval of the Academic Senate or Administrative Council, be promoted to the rank of ordinary professors. The promotion shall be made on the favorable opinion of a commission to be appointed in accordance with IX. It shall be the duty of the commission to ascertain whether the extraordinary professor has demonstrated his ability through published works, or through other appropriate titles, or in the case of applied schools, his scientific accomplishments.

The transactions of the commission shall be transmitted to the Higher Council, in accordance with the last paragraph of X.

XV. Ordinary and extraordinary professors of royal universities and higher institutes of university grade may, with their consent, be transferred to other professorships in the same subject in other universities or institutes.

Ordinary professors may also be transferred, with their consent, to other professorships at the same university or institute, provided the professorships belong to a group of sciences closely connected in subject matter, in accordance with the provisions of the special regulations of the faculties or schools; or provided the professor whose transfer has been proposed has in fact held the vacant professorship as ordinary or extraordinary professor; or provided he is the first on the list of a competitive examination held to fill the vacancy.

XVI. All transfers shall be proposed by the faculty or school in which the vacant professorship occurs, upon the absolute majority vote of the ordinary professors of the same faculty or school, and upon a two-thirds vote of the professors present at the special meeting to be announced in the *Bollettino Ufficiale* of the Ministry of Public Instruction.

No transfer may be proposed until one month after the professorship has been vacant. If the vacancy should occur on account of the transfer of the regular incumbent, the vacancy itself must have started on the day in which the decree relating thereto was registered.

Transfers which have been decreed after the month of December shall become effective on the beginning of the following academic year.

XVII. Assistants may be appointed for subjects requiring demonstrations and applications in every faculty or school, including the faculties of jurisprudence and of philosophy and letters. This is done to assist the professor in the practical exercises.

The regulations shall contain the rules governing the appointment of assistants.

PRIVATE DOCENTS

XVIII. The following are classified as private docents:

(1) ordinary and extraordinary professors, insofar as they conduct private courses, in accordance with Article 56 of the Consolidated Law on higher education.

(2) agrégés doctors for those universities wherein they exist, in accordance with the terms of the same article.

(3) those who have obtained their qualifying certificate as private docents.

XIX. Ordinary and extraordinary professors who discontinue their services shall retain the right to teach privately and may practice their profession in the same faculty or school to which they previously belonged, provided, of course, that they have not been removed or dismissed from office.

XX. Candidates whose names are listed among the first three in a competitive examination for official professors may obtain at once their qualifying certificate as private docents in the subject in which the said examination was held; but in order to practise as private docents they must comply with the provisions of XXI following.

XXI. The private docent qualifying certificate may be obtained four years after the doctoral degree. It shall be granted without reference to any special university or institute, but it may be exercised in only one university or institute, subject to the approval of the faculty in question.

XXII. The qualifying certificate shall be granted on the basis of degrees and publications, supplemented by:

(1) a lecture on the publications proper and on other points in the science or subject that the candidate is to teach.

(2) a teaching and experimental test, in accordance with the rules to be determined by the regulation for each faculty.

In exceptional cases the candidates may be exempted from the teaching and experimental test or from both tests, provided the commission by unanimous vote shall deem that these aptitudes have been ascertained in some other way.

Candidates who by their titles and lecture do not show that they possess the necessary preparation shall not be admitted to the teaching and experimental tests.

The private docent qualifying certificate may also be granted to persons who meet the conditions set down in Article 24 of the Consolidated Law, with the approval of the Higher Council of Public Instruction.

XXIII. The examination commission for the private docent qualifying certificates shall be the same for each subject, and the members thereof shall be appointed for two years.

The commission shall be composed of five members, one of whom shall be chosen from among the private docents engaged in teaching in the faculty or school to which the subject, in whole or in part, normally belongs. The other four members shall be appointed by the same faculty or school by limited vote, and with the same rules that govern the commission for university competitive examinations (IX).

The transactions of the examination commissions shall be submitted to the Higher Council for examination.

XXIV. The private docent qualifying certificate may also be issued for subjects which are not taught by the official professors, with the approval of the Higher Council of Public Instruction.

XXV. Courses taught by private docents shall have the same legal value as the corresponding courses given by official professors, provided

they conform with the latter in time and duration.

The regulation shall contain the rules for the non-standardized courses.

XXVI. In courses requiring demonstrative and experimental equipment, private docents who have not their own means and equipment may not utilize the scientific equipment of the university, excepting under conditions determined by the regulation.

XXVII. A private docent who has interrupted his teaching for three consecutive years without legitimate reasons, cannot resume his practice until after a new application made to the faculty or school has been approved.

REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE COURSES

XXVIII. The regulations of each faculty or school shall determine the minimum number of courses for which students are required to register each year.

Such minimum number shall include the required courses, as well as those which may be freely chosen by the student.

DEGREE AND STATE EXAMINATIONS

XXIX. In accordance with their respective regulations, faculties and schools may confer degrees authorizing the recipients to use the title and academic degree of doctor.

XXX. State examinations shall be established for the qualifying license to practice the liberal professions.* Only students who have registered for certain courses for a number of years which are fixed by each faculty or school, and who have passed the examinations in the individual subjects shall be admitted to these State examinations.

Graduates of private universities shall also be admitted to these examinations.

XXXI. Commissions for State examinations shall be appointed each year by the Minister in each city having a university or school.

ADMINISTRATION OF UNIVERSITIES AND HIGHER INSTITUTES

XXXII. Each university or institute of higher learning shall have

**Among the liberal professions the majority of the members of the Commission have not included teaching in the high and normal schools: it has decided that for this purpose the degree is a sufficient qualification. (Interpretative decision approved at the meeting of February 21, 1914).*

its own budget, which it shall administer in accordance with the rules contained in the regulation.**

The contribution of the State towards the maintenance of each university or institute of higher learning shall be determined by distributing, on the basis of the present situation, the sums appropriated in the budget of instruction for the ordinary expenditures of universities and higher institutes.

The appropriations thus made shall represent the minimum contribution of the State treasury for universities and higher institutes.

No changes shall be introduced in the extraordinary items of the budget.

The property, rights and equipment of any kind in the possession of the aforesaid corporations, or which they may legally acquire in the future, shall be kept as their patrimony, and they may be utilized for no other purpose than that for which they were destined.

XXXIII. With reference to the registration and stamp fees, all acts and contracts entered into by the Academic Senate or the Administrative Council through their respective presidents shall be subject to the same rules as govern the acts and contracts of the State administrations.

All incomes referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be exempt from the R. M. impost and from the mortmain tax.

All acts and contracts entered into by the Academic Senate and the Administrative Council shall not be subject to the verification of the Controller's office; nor shall they require the opinion of the Council of State.

XXXIV. In accordance with the rules contained in the regulation, the estimated budget of each university or higher institute prepared by the Academic Senate or the Administrative Council shall be transmitted to the Minister of Public Instruction for his approval.

If the Minister makes no comments, this shall signify approval within a month from its submission.

The final budgets of all universities and higher institutes shall be presented by the Minister of Public Instruction to Parliament as appendices to the budget report of the Ministry.

SCHOOL FEES

XXXV. The following shall take the place of the present school fees:

- (1) annual matriculation fee
- (2) examination fee in individual subjects

***The Commission has also decided that each institute or university shall have an organic list of its own (V. in part II, approved at the meeting of March 20, 1913).*

- (3) fee for the doctorate examinations
- (4) fee for State examinations
- (5) registration fee for each course to be paid to the bursar of the university or institute at the time of registration.

The fee for the state examination shall be turned over to the public treasury, whereas the fees for the subject examinations and for the degree examinations shall be turned over to the universities and higher institutes.

The annual matriculation fees shall also be turned over to the universities and higher institutes after deducting the sum now paid to the public treasury in matriculation and registration fees for courses.

XXXVI. The registration fee referred to in the preceding paragraph for public courses shall devolve upon the respective professors in the proportions fixed by the regulations; in the case of private courses the full amount shall be paid to them.

PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES

XXXVII. In the case of the private universities of Camerino, Ferrara, Perugia, and Urbino, a special commission appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, shall ascertain whether the teaching imparted is of a high standard, and whether the administrative and scientific personnel is such as to guarantee the proper functioning of the institution. If the report of the commission is favorable, after a hearing before the Higher Council of Public Instruction, a royal decree shall recognize, for legal purposes, the studies completed there as being the equivalent of those completed in royal universities.

XXXVIII. This recognition may not take place until after the universities proper shall have conformed with the regulations and laws concerning the appointment of professors, the admission of students, the organization of studies, and the payment of university fees, which, with the exception of the fee for the State examinations, shall be turned over to them.

Private universities shall regulate the position of the members of their respective faculties so as to guarantee them a minimum stipend, in accordance with the schedules in force for royal universities previous to the law of July 19, 1909, No. 496.

APPENDIX F

CONSOLIDATED LAWS ON HIGHER EDUCATION* ROYAL DECREE OF AUGUST 31, 1933 No. 1592 REPORT TO HIS EXCELLENCY THE MINISTER ON THE CONSOLIDATED LAWS ON HIGHER EDUCATION

LEGISLATION ON HIGHER EDUCATION

The constant progress of science and the technical arts, the spread of culture, and the necessity for intellectual and moral preparation for the practice of the various professions give the organization of higher education and scientific research a fundamental and extraordinary importance in modern society. This organization appears now, as never before, to be intimately connected with the prosperity and strength of nations.

Italy can justly boast of having made a significant contribution to the history of human knowledge by means of her glorious medieval universities. But she may well be proud, too, of the excellent organization she gave to higher education early in her history as a resurrected nation. In the legislative field, an elaborate series of regulations has been successively carried out; in the field of scholarship, a profound study of the problem in its manifold aspects has been made. All this has been done from 1859, the year in which the Casati law was promulgated, to the present time when the laws and regulations in force on university education have been consolidated into a unified whole.

This is not the proper place to deal, even hastily, with these important legislative acts and this great scholarly achievement; it is sufficient but to recall the fact that the laws issued during these seventy years have been very numerous and that even a greater number of bills were presented and discussed in Parliament.

**Italy — Ministero dell'Educazione Nazionale — Direzione Generale dell'Istruzione Superiore. Testo Unico delle leggi sull'istruzione superiore. Rome, Istituto Poligrafico dello Stato, Libreria, 1933, pp. XXVI, 135. Published in the Gazzetta Ufficiale, ordinary supplement No. 283, December 7, 1933, XII.*

The history of this branch of our educational legislation can today be subdivided into three periods.

The first period begins with the Royal decree of November 13, 1859, No. 3725 (the Casati law), and ends with the promulgation of the Royal decree of August 9, 1910, No. 795, which approved the first consolidation of the laws on higher education.

The second period begins with 1910 and ends in 1923, that is, with the promulgation of the Royal decree of September 30, 1923, No. 2102 (the Gentile law). It is necessary to bear in mind, however, that the organization provided for by the law of 1859 was not substantially changed by the law of 1910. In fact, it may be said that the fundamental provisions of the Casati law of 1859 remained in force until 1923.

With the Gentile law begins the third period of the history of our university institutions.

*The Royal Decree of September 30, 1923, No. 2102,
and its subsequent modifications*

The decree of 1923, promulgated by the Fascist Government by virtue of the unlimited powers it received from Parliament in order to provide for a reorganization of the Italian State, brought about a radical change in the organization of higher education.

The principles upon which the reform was based is well-known, e. g. pre-eminence of the scientific character of higher education; educational, administrative and disciplinary autonomy for the universities; liberty to the students in the selection of subjects; State examinations. These principles are very different from those on which the former system was based.

As was inevitable, the setting up of this new organization caused drastic changes in both general and personal relations. It has therefore been necessary to pass numerous laws which have served to integrate and complement each other.

Thus a complicated series of regulations came into existence alongside the organic law.

*Regulations Governing Institutions which have been Transferred to the
Jurisdiction of the Ministry of National Education*

But an additional legislative enactment was added to the above.

In order to unify all educational policies, the Fascist Government brought all educational institutions under the rule of the Ministry of Public Instruction, which thereupon became the Ministry of National Education. Thus, by virtue of the Royal decrees of June 17, 1928, No. 1314, and July 8, 1929, No. 1222, the higher institutes of agriculture and veterinary medicine, the higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences,

the Royal Higher Naval Institute of Naples, and the Royal Fascist Academy of Physical Education and of the Education of Youth were added to the universities and institutes governed by the laws above mentioned.

The Five Groups of Juridical Regulations to be Unified

In consequence, all higher institutes which were now under the direction of a single ministry were being regulated by five different groups of juridical regulations.

The first was the Gentile law and its successive modifications; the second concerned the institutes of agriculture and veterinary medicine; the third regulated the institutes of economic and commercial sciences; the fourth was composed of the numerous regulations concerning a variety of institutions (the Royal Oriental Institute of Naples, the Royal Naval Institute of Naples, the Royal Higher Normal School of Pisa, the Royal Fascist Academy for Physical Education and for the Education of Youth in Rome, the Royal University for Foreigners of Perugia); the fifth group concerned the co-ordination of all these laws. In fact, the need for consolidating this large and complex body of laws was soon felt, and co-ordinating laws became necessary in order to prepare the basis for their *unification*. Two such co-ordinating decree-laws were promulgated, one on July 3, 1930, No. 1176, and the other on August 28, 1931, No. 1227, which became the law of June 16, 1932, No. 812.

Finally, it is necessary to mention for the sake of completeness that by virtue of Article 11 of the above-mentioned Royal decree-law of August 28, 1931, the higher institutes of architecture, which had been created by the Royal decree of December 31, 1923, No. 3123, concerning the "organization of art education," have been brought under the institutions governed by the Gentile law.

*The Legal Power Given to the Government to Promulgate
the Consolidated Laws*

It is superfluous to point out the necessity and urgency for a consolidation of all these legislative enactments. They become evident if we consider the difficulties and the inconveniences which inevitably present themselves to those engaged in the research, interpretation and application of so many regulations.

The power to consolidate all the measures on higher education was given to the Government by the King by Article 70 of the Royal decree-law of September 4, 1925, No. 1604, and by Article 26 of the Royal decree of July 3, 1930, No. 1176.

This power refers not only to the measures in force at the time of the publication of the Royal decree-law of 1925, but also to those which have been promulgated since the publication of the above-mentioned decree.

The laws and decrees which have been co-ordinated and consolidated

total 101; they include those promulgated from 1923 to 1933, and therefore represent ten years of legislation. The articles which have been elaborated and unified number 1,207, besides the 28 tables; the articles which make up the consolidated law number only 334, besides 14 tables.

Omissis

UGO FRASCHERELLI

Director General for Higher Education

Rome, November 1933.

ROYAL DECREE OF AUGUST 31, 1933—XI, No. 1592

Approval of the Consolidated Laws on Higher Education

(Published in the *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, ordinary supplement, No. 283, December 7, 1933, XII)

VICTOR EMANUEL III

BY THE GRACE OF GOD AND THE WILL OF THE NATION
KING OF ITALY

Having seen Article 70 of the Royal decree-law of September 4, 1925, No. 1604, authorizing the Government of the King to compile a unified text, and to take the necessary measures in order to consolidate and integrate all existing regulations and those that may be promulgated even after the publication of this decree on the subject of higher education, and relating to bodies, institutes, buildings, offices, and any and all services pertaining to higher education and culture; and

Having seen Article 26 of the Royal decree-law of July 3, 1930, No. 1176, which specifies that the above Article 70 refers to all institutes of higher education which at present are subject to the Ministry of National Education; and

Having heard the opinion of the State Council; and

Having heard the Council of Ministers;

On the proposal of our Minister Secretary of State for National Education, in agreement with the Minister of Finance,

We have decreed and do hereby decree:

The text of the consolidated laws on higher education, annexed to the present decree, and by our order seen by the proposing ministers, is approved.

We order that the present decree, bearing the seal of the State, be inserted in the official collection of the laws and decrees of the Kingdom of Italy, and we request all those concerned to observe it and to have it observed.

Given at San Rossore, August 31, 1933, anno XI

VICTOR EMANUEL

Mussolini — Ercole — Jung

Seen, the Keeper of the Seals: De Francisci
Registered at the Controller's Office, November 17, 1933, anno XII
Government Acts, register 340, Folio 100 — Mancini.

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DIVISION I.

UNIVERSITIES AND HIGHER INSTITUTES

SECTION I. — ORGANIZATION

Chapter I. — Institutes of Higher Education and their Aims

Article 1. — The object of higher education is to promote scientific progress and to furnish the necessary scientific culture for the practice of the various arts and professions.

In accordance with the aims and purposes of the present consolidated law, higher education is imparted:

- 1) in the royal universities and higher institutes, referred to in accompanying tables A and B;
- 2) in the private universities and higher institutes.

Universities and institutes possess juridical personality, and administrative, educational and disciplinary autonomy within the limits fixed by the present consolidated law; they are placed under the supervision of the State, exercised by the Ministry of National Education.

Article 2. — Expenditures for the maintenance of the universities and institutes referred to in table A are paid from appropriations made in the State budget, excepting for aid given by chartered associations and private persons.

The same table determines:

- a) the faculties and schools constituting each university or institute; in this respect it may be modified by royal decree in accordance with the regulations contained in articles 20 and 24;
- b) the contributions from the State budget; in this respect, it may be modified only by law.

Article 3. — The universities and institutes referred to in table B are supported through agreements between the State and chartered associations or private individuals; the yearly contribution of the State for each university or institute cannot exceed the amount fixed in said table B. The agreements referred to above shall determine the faculties or schools composing each university.

The agreements are approved and, if necessary, modified by royal decree after consulting with the first section of the Higher Council of National Education, which shall include one or more members of the fifth section for agreements affecting the higher institutes of architecture.

The agreements are published in the *Gazzetta Ufficiale* of the Kingdom.

Article 4. — The private universities and higher institutes do not receive any contribution from the State budget.

Article 5. — The following changes may be affected by royal decrees, emanating from the Ministry of National Education in agreement with the Ministry of Finance:

- a) the fusion of the higher institutes of agriculture and of veterinary medicine located in the same city or in adjacent cities;
- b) the union of higher institutes of veterinary medicine with universities.

The royal decrees referred to above shall be in accord with the opinion of the Higher Council of National Education and shall contain the conditions upon which the fusion or union may be affected.

Chapter II. — Academic Authorities

Article 6 — The administration of universities and of higher institutes is entrusted to the following authorities:

- 1) the rector of universities and director of higher institutes;
- 2) the academic senate;
- 3) the administrative council;
- 4) the deans of faculties and of schools;
- 5) the faculty and school councils.

The higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences have a director or a rector.

The administrative council is in charge of the administration and the finances of the university or institute; the other authorities, each within its own jurisdiction, are entrusted with the scientific, educational and disciplinary policies.

All the powers of the academic senate are exercised by the faculty council in the universities or institutes composed of only one faculty.

The outgoing academic authorities, while waiting for the confirmation or the substitution of appointments, continue with their duties with respect to any action taken for the normal functioning of the universities or institutes.

Article 7. — The rectors and directors are appointed by the King from among the full professors of the university or institute.

They hold office for two academic years and may be reappointed.

The attached table C fixes the special remuneration of rectors and directors; these sums are not to be taken into consideration in the computation of the pension.

When the Minister deems it inadvisable to appoint a rector or director immediately, he may designate, by his own decree, an acting rector or director, selecting him either from among the full professors of the university or institute or from among those of another university or institute located in the same city. The acting rector or director holds office for one

academic year and may be reappointed. He is entitled to the remuneration of a rector or director.

Article 8. — With the consent of the Minister, rectors or directors may delegate their respective administrative and financial duties of the university or institute to a professor chosen from among the full professors of the same university or institute. They may also recommend to the Minister their choice of professors to act in their place in case of emergency or absence.

With the approval of the administrative council professors may receive a yearly remuneration from the budget of the university or institute of not more than 2,000 lire, which is to be reduced by 12 per cent in accordance with the Royal decree-law of November 20, 1930, No. 1491.

Article 9. — The Academic Senate is composed of:

- a) the rector or director who is its presiding officer;
- b) the deans of the faculties and schools which compose the university or institute, provided that the degrees and diplomas conferred on the completion of the respective courses are acceptable for admission to the State qualifying examinations for the practice of the professions.

The Administrative Director participates in the discussions at the meetings of the Academic Senate and has the deciding vote; he also acts as secretary of the senate.

Article 10. — The Administrative Council, for the universities and institutes referred to in table A, is composed as follows:

- a) the rector or director who presides over it;
- b) two members appointed by the deans of faculties and schools composing the university or institute from among the full professors of said university or institute. In the case of universities or higher institutes which have only one faculty, the two members are designated by the rector or director from among the professors of the university or institute proper;
- c) two government representatives—one, the controller of the province; the other, selected by the Minister from among persons of recognized administrative ability but who are not connected with the universities or higher institutes. The controller is obliged to attend personally the meetings of the council. In case the office is vacant, the meetings shall be attended by the assistant controller;
- d) the administrative director.

In addition to the members referred to in the preceding paragraph the Administrative Council of the Royal Higher Institute of Architecture of Rome shall include another Government representative, selected by the Minister from among the officers, of a grade not below the sixth, connected with the services of antiquities and fine arts.

Chartered associations and private persons who contribute to the

maintenance of universities and higher institutes an annual sum of not less than one-tenth of the contribution of the State, have the joint right to designate their own representatives to the council. A representative shall be appointed for every three contributors. If there are less than three contributors, they too may appoint a representative.

The number of members referred to in paragraph b) is increased by as many members as are added to the three referred to in the preceding paragraph.

The members referred to in paragraph b) and the member selected by the Minister hold office for two years and may be reappointed. Whenever the last mentioned member has not been present at three consecutive meetings without justifiable excuse, he is removed and a substitute appointed.

The duties of secretary of the Administrative Council are performed by the administrative director.

The Administrative Council is established by a decree of the Minister.

Article 11. — The regulations concerning the composition and reappointment of the administrative councils of the universities and institutes referred to in table B are contained in the agreements entered into for their maintenance. In any case, except as provided for in the two following paragraphs, the council is presided over by the rector or director and shall include at least two government representatives (one of whom shall be the controller of the Province) and the administrative director.

In the case of the higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences the rector or director is an ex-officio member. The president of the council is appointed by a royal decree on the proposal of the Minister of National Education; he is chosen from among the members of the council but need not be connected with the institute. He holds office for two academic years and may be reappointed.

In the case of higher institutes of architecture, the government representatives shall include, in addition to the controller of the province, an officer selected by the Minister from among those connected with the services of antiquities and fine arts, of the grade not below the sixth.

The Administrative Council is established by a decree of the Minister.

Article 12. — The president of the Administrative Council is the legal representative of the university or higher institute. He carries out the decisions of the council, takes any urgent measures that may be necessary and refers them to the council for ratification at its next meeting, and supervises the bursar's office, special funds, and the administrative and accounting services.

Article 13. — The Administrative Council may be dissolved by a royal decree for reasons of weight or when it persists, despite warnings from the Minister, in ignoring duties which are imposed upon it by legislative enactments or regulations.

In case of dissolution the administration is entrusted to an extraordinary commissioner who shall be paid from the budget of the university or higher institute.

Article 14. — The deans are appointed by the Minister from a list of three names of full professors of the respective faculties or schools, proposed by the rector or director. They hold office for two academic years and may be reappointed.

The rector or director of a university or institute composed of only one faculty also exercises the powers of a dean of the faculty.

Article 15. — The Faculty or School Council is composed of the dean, who acts as the presiding officer, and, as a rule, of all the full professors of the faculty or school.

Full professors giving official courses in some other faculty or school, university or institute, adjunct professors, and two representatives of the private docents may be asked to be present at meetings convened for special purposes.

The Council of the Faculty of Pharmacy is composed, as a rule, of the dean, who presides, of the full professors of subjects pertaining exclusively to the faculty and of the full professors of subjects common to the Faculty of Pharmacy and to other faculties, even though they teach the subjects in the Faculty of Pharmacy as adjunct professors.

The full professor of pharmaceutical chemistry may be connected with the Faculty of Science, provided that this is so stipulated in the constitution of the university concerned.

Article 16. — The Faculty and School Councils have, in addition to the powers conferred upon them by the regulations, the duty to examine the programs of courses which the full professors and the private docents propose to give. They have the power to coordinate them, to introduce any necessary changes, and thus to present an organic plan which will fully comply with the scientific and professional aims of the faculties or schools.

Chapter III. — Educational Organization

Paragraph 1. — Constitutions and academic year

Article 17. — Every university or higher institute has a special constitution.

The constitutions are proposed by the Academic Senate after consultation with the Administrative Council and the faculties and schools constituting the university or institute; in the case of universities or institutes consisting of only one faculty, by the faculty council after consulting with the administrative council. They are promulgated by a royal decree, after consultation with the Higher Council of National Education, and are published in the *Gazzetta Ufficiale* of the Kingdom.

Any changes in the constitutions are proposed and approved in the same manner; however, they may go into effect only in the academic year following their approval.

The constitutions cannot be modified until at least three academic years have elapsed since the time of their approval or since their last modification, excepting in cases of specially recognized necessity.

Article 18. — In accordance with the provisions of Article 20 the constitutions of the universities and institutes referred to in table A determine the faculties, schools, courses and seminars which, in addition to those indicated in the same table, are formed and supported within the limits of the budget of the university or institute.

In accordance with the provisions of articles 3 and 20 the constitutions of the universities and institutes referred to in table B specify the the faculties, schools, courses and seminars which constitute them under the agreements for their maintenance.

Excepting for the provision of Article 26, the constitution of each university or institute determines, for each faculty, school, course or seminar, the subjects of teaching, their order, and the manner in which they must be imparted.

In the case of the higher institutes of agriculture and veterinary medicine the constitutions establish which of the subjects of study are fundamental, and provide regulations for laboratory exercises and for the operation of experimental institutes and stations and of the related agricultural enterprises.

In the case of the higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences the constitutions establish, except for the provisions of the second paragraph of Article 21, which of the subjects of study are fundamental and which complementary, and provide for the organization of integrating courses.

Article 19. — The academic year begins on November 1 and ends on October 31 of the following year.

Paragraph 2. — Faculties, Schools, Courses and Subjects

Article 20. — The subjects of study at universities and at higher institutes are coordinated so as to constitute faculties, schools, and courses.

The following faculties may be constituted at each university or higher institute:

- Jurisprudence
- Political Science
- Economic and Commercial Sciences
- Letters and Philosophy
- Medicine and Surgery
- Veterinary Medicine

Pharmacy
Mathematical, Physical and Natural Sciences
Engineering
Architecture
Agriculture

In addition, the following may be established:

- a) Specialized schools;
- b) Post-graduate schools;
- c) Post-graduate, integrating, and professional courses, annexed to individual faculties.

The schools referred to under letters a) and b) may be organized either by offering special subjects or by an appropriate grouping and coordination of subjects given in other faculties.

The courses referred to under letter c) are organized within the respective faculties by offering appropriate subjects, even if offered under other faculties or schools. Integrating courses are offered by the faculties of economic and commercial sciences.

Seminars may be formed by regrouping and coordinating related subjects, even if offered by different faculties, schools or higher institutes.

A subject may be taught either by lessons or by scientific or professional exercises.

Excepting for the provision of Article 25, the general university regulation determines the duration of the studies for each faculty referred to in the second paragraph. The duration of the studies for the schools and courses referred to in the third paragraph is fixed by the constitutions.

Article 21. — Registration, attendance, and examination in all fundamental subjects specified in the constitutions of the higher institutes of agriculture and veterinary medicine are obligatory for all degree students.

In the higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences the subjects are fundamental and complementary. Subjects for which registration, attendance, and examination are obligatory for the purpose of obtaining a degree are fundamental. Complementary subjects are those of integration in which the examination may be obligatory, depending on whether special mention is to be made in the degree diploma in accordance with Article 167. In addition to the fundamental and complementary subjects, every institute must also teach at least four foreign languages in accordance with the regulations to be established by the constitution.

Article 22. — Universities and higher institutes are authorized to make special agreements whereby students of one university or higher institute may pursue, for the purpose of obtaining the degree to which they aspire, courses offered by another institute or university in the same city.

Article 23. — At the end of each academic year, directors of graduate schools, graduate courses, seminars, and of scientific institutes of universities and higher institutes must send to the Ministry a detailed report.

together with documents and publications, on the educational and scientific work of their respective institutes.

Article 24. — The elimination of a faculty, school or course or the fusion of faculties or schools belonging to the same university, may be ordered by means of a royal decree on the proposal of the Minister of National Education.

The decree referred to above shall be promulgated after consultation with an approval by the Higher Council of National Education, and shall specify the manner in which the elimination or fusion shall be effected.

Paragraph 3. — Special Regulations for Engineering Education

Article 25. — The course in engineering is of five years' duration. It is divided into two parts: a two-year preparatory course and a three-year applied course.

The two-year preparatory course may be pursued at any faculty of mathematical, physical and natural sciences, and at the higher engineering institutes of Milan and Turin. It may also be taken at the Royal Naval Academy of Leghorn, the Royal Military Academy of Turin and at the the Royal Aeronautical Academy of Caserta.

The three-year applied course may be pursued at an engineering institute, at the Royal Naval Academy of Leghorn, and at the Royal Aeronautical Academy of Caserta.

The diploma examination of the two-year preparatory course which, in accordance with the regulations of Article 161, is required for admission to the three-year applied course, may be taken only by those students of the three academies who at the time of their admission to the two-year course, had a secondary school diploma as required by the provisions of Article 143.

The regulations concerning the organization and the administration of the preparatory course at the three academies, and of the first year of the applied course at the Naval Academy of Leghorn and at the Aeronautical Academy of Caserta, are issued and when necessary, modified by a royal decree proposed by the ministers concerned in agreement with the ministers of national education and finance.

Article 26. — In the preparatory engineering course students are required to pass examinations in each of the following subjects:

- Algebraic and infinitesimal analyses;
- Analytical and descriptive geometry with elements of projection;
- Experimental physics (two-year course);
- General inorganic chemistry with elements of organic chemistry;
- Rational mechanics;
- Decorative and architectural drawing (two-year course).

The regulations concerning the distribution of the above subjects and examinations in the two-year course are contained in the constitutions of the universities and of the higher engineering institutes.

Paragraph 4. — Special Regulations for Medical Education

Article 27. — Hospitals having a total daily average of not more than 600 patients and located in cities having a faculty of medicine and surgery shall be transformed into clinical hospitals in accordance with educational needs.

Hospitals having more than the above-mentioned average number of patients per day may also be transformed into clinical hospitals whenever the Ministry of National Education deems it necessary.

The regulations referred to in the preceding paragraphs are applicable to all other public institutions which, under a different name, take care of the sick.

Article 28. — The administrations of hospitals which have been legally recognized as public welfare institutions but have not been transformed into clinical teaching hospitals, and which are located in cities having faculties of medicine and surgery, are required to place at the disposal of university clinics all such patients admitted during the preceding twenty-four hours as may be deemed necessary for teaching purposes.

For this purpose, the transfer of patients from the receiving rooms to the treatment wards shall take place, except for urgent cases, with the assistance of a delegate from the university clinics. It shall be his duty to select patients to be sent to the university clinics.

Article 29. — Hospitals which have been transformed in accordance with Article 27 shall be administered for the complete solar year under the regulations of the institutions to which they belong. All expenses shall be paid by them alone and shall be subject to the limitations by which they are bound.

Clinical institutes shall provide at their own expense for the administrative personnel and for special treatments, and shall place at the disposal of the hospital service all diagnostic and therapeutical equipment in their possession. This shall not include, however, the assistant personnel of the hospital which may be required for the operation of the individual wards.

Article 30. — University clinics housed in appropriate buildings may function as hospital wards for the entire solar year in accordance with rules and under conditions agreed upon by the university administration and the administrations of public institutions.

Article 31. — The Ministry of National Education may, on the proposal of the Faculties of Medicine and Surgery, require that hospitals not located in cities which are university centers shall accept students or graduates

for the practice of their profession under the supervision of hospital attendants.

Article 32. — All cadavers obtained from hospitals are subjected to a diagnostic examination.

Bodies which are not transported at the expense of relatives within the family group up to the sixth degree, or at the expense of brotherhoods or societies which may have assumed the expense of the funeral services of their brother members, and bodies that are obtained from medico-legal autopsies (suicides excluded) and that are unclaimed by the relatives within the said family group, shall be reserved for instruction and scientific research.

Article 33. — The administrative councils of all public institutions referred to in Article 27 shall include two representatives from the university who shall be designated by the academic senate, and who shall exercise all the powers of the council members in all matters pertaining to the relations between the said institutions and the clinics.

Article 34. — All controversies relative to the enforcement of the above provisions shall be settled upon the request of one or both parties by the Royal prefect whose decision shall be promulgated by a decree. An appeal from the decision of the prefect to the Minister of the Interior may be brought within thirty days; the Minister of the Interior shall act in conjunction with the Minister of National Education in rendering a decision, and where a difference of opinion shall exist the Council of State shall be consulted.

Article 35. — The provisions of Articles 27, 28, 29 and 30 shall not apply to hospitals under the jurisdiction of the Administration of United Hospitals, with the exception of the wards of the Polyclinic which are at present occupied by university clinics.

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Chapter IV. — Administrative Organization

Paragraph 1. — Internal Regulations

Article 44. — Every university or higher institute shall have an internal code of regulations covering the administrative, bookkeeping and internal functions of the university or institute, and the personnel whose salaries are provided for in the budget. The regulations contained in the present Consolidated Law for each category of personnel remain unchanged.

The salaries and wages of the personnel to be paid by the various institutes cannot be higher than those provided for by the Royal decree-law of November 20, 1930, No. 1491. This limitation does not include the service and assistant personnel.

The code of regulations shall be issued, and, if necessary, modified by a decree of the rector or director. The decree shall be issued only after having been voted upon by the administrative council which in turn shall have heard the opinion of the faculty and school councils concerned as well as that of the academic senate, wherever one exists. It must be approved by the Minister of National Education and the Minister of Finance.

The code of regulations and any subsequent changes must be published in the *Official Bulletin* of the Ministry of National Education.

Paragraph 2. — Endowments and Incomes

Article 45. — Besides the income from endowments, each university and higher institute shall have at its disposal the annual contribution derived from the State budget, the contributions of chartered associations or of private individuals, the income from fees derived from the private docents, from school fees, and from any other fees paid by students—except as provided in Articles 152 and 194—from secretarial fees and from any and all services performed by the scientific institutes.

The contributions which the provinces, the municipalities, and the provincial councils of corporative economy may be obliged, or may bind themselves to pay to the royal universities or the royal higher institutes, must be guaranteed by appropriations from the surtaxes if a request to the prefect is made by the higher institute concerned. In the absence of adequate funds from surtaxes, the appropriation shall be made from other revenues derived from the collections of the provincial receiver or the collector of direct taxes.

These appropriations must be made for the remainder of the period during which the agreement for the support of the university or higher institute is to be in force.

The provincial receiver and the collector of direct taxes shall be responsible for the moneys they receive as contributions for the university or higher institute concerned.

Article 46. — Every university and higher institute shall have free and permanent use of all government real estate and movable property placed at the service of the university or institute.

Article 47. — All movable property of universities and higher institutes, regardless of the category to which they belong, must be recorded in a appropriate inventory and turned over to persons responsible for their preservation.

Article 48. — The Minister of National Education may allow scientific material, purchased with special funds granted for definite studies and researches to be carried out by a full professor, to be assigned to an institute located in some other city to which the professor himself may have been transferred.

For this purpose it is necessary to obtain the approval of the admin-

istrative council of the institute from which the professor comes.

The institute shall look after the necessary changes in the inventory.

Article 49. — Scientific institutes of universities and higher institutes, consistently with their scientific and educational functions, may carry out analyses, tests and experiments at the request of public administrations or private individuals.

University clinics may receive paying patients.

The code of regulations shall fix the rules for the collection and disbursement of income, and shall also make provision for the organization and functioning of the services connected therewith.

Article 50. — In the event of the elimination of a university or institute referred to in table B, the government real estate formerly used by that university or institute shall thereafter be utilized for purposes of public instruction or for general cultural purposes in the particular municipality or province. All movable property shall be transferred to universities or institutes listed in tables A and B, or shall be assigned to royal higher institutes by a special regulation which shall be issued after due consideration of the needs of these institutes and the type of materials in question.

In the case of partial elimination of a faculty or school belonging to a university or institute listed in table A, the provisions of the preceding paragraph shall apply only to such real estate and movable property as were formerly used by the faculty or school thus eliminated.

Paragraph 3. — Expenditures, Contracts, and Works

Article 51. — Expenditures not exceeding 30,000 lire may be made in accordance with the rules established by the code of internal regulations referred to in Article 44.

All expenditures in excess of the above-mentioned amount are to be made after the receipt of public or private bids and after a decision by the administrative council.

In exceptional or urgent cases the council may by appropriate resolution dispense with bids even for expenditures in excess of 30,000 lire, but not exceeding 100,000 lire.

For expenditures in excess of 100,000 lire the omission of the above formalities must be authorized by the Minister of National Education.

Decisions of the administrative councils concerning transfers or changes of endowments or the making of loans are effective only when approved by the Minister of National Education.

Article 52. — The president and the members of the administrative councils are personally liable for expenditures made or ordered in excess of the funds at their disposal. They are also liable for economic losses suffered by the university or higher institute because of their failure to

observe the legislative provisions, whether through fraud or gross negligence.

Article 53. — Each director of a scientific institute may freely dispose of the funds assigned to his institute, but he shall be obliged to render an account of expenditures at the end of the fiscal year to the administrative council.

However, in the case of a single expenditure that exceeds 10,000 lire, or which exceeds 5,000 lire yearly divided over the budgets of several fiscal periods, the prior approval of the administrative council is necessary.

Directors and professors who enjoy grants for scientific laboratories are personally responsible for expenditures made year after year in excess of the funds they administer.

The Minister of National Education, acting in conjunction with the Minister of Finance, may take the necessary steps to withhold the salaries of those concerned for the sums necessary to liquidate the excess expenditures.

Article 54. — Payments made on behalf of a university or higher institute or on behalf of each separate scientific institute, shall be made either by the chief cashier directly or by means of checking accounts with reputable banking institutions. Such payments shall be made on the basis of bills which have been submitted or with the written approval of the person ordering the expenditures, countersigned by the rector of the university or by the director of the higher institute.

Article 55. — Contracts and deeds of universities and higher institutes shall be subject to the same provisions as to registration and stamp taxes as are the contracts and deeds of State administrations.

Universities and higher institutes shall also be exempt from the mortmain and from income taxes on State contributions and grants from both chartered associations and private individuals.

Article 56. — Universities and higher institutes may be represented and defended by the legal department of the State in active and passive judgments before the judicial authorities, arbitration boards and special under tables A and B, except as provided for in the Royal decree of May

In addition, they may avail themselves of the services of the Civil Engineering Division (*Genio Civile*) for the construction of buildings to be paid for out of their own budgets.

Article 57. — No changes are introduced concerning extraordinary works affecting the buildings of universities and higher institutes included under tables A and B, except as provided for in the Royal decree of May 18, 1931, No. 544.

Paragraph 4. — Budgets and Accounts

Article 58. — The fiscal year of universities and higher institutes shall extend from November 1st to October 31st of the following year.

The administrative council shall decide upon budget estimates in June.

The administrative council shall determine the appropriations for salaries and materials for the university or higher institute generally, and the appropriations necessary for the proper maintenance of faculties and schools and each scientific institute. Such determination shall be made on the proposal of the academic senate, after hearing the opinion of the faculties and schools constituting the university or institute; or, in the case of universities or institutes composed of only one faculty, on the proposal of the faculty council.

The estimated budget shall provide for a reserve fund to take care of any needs that may arise after its approval.

The administrative council shall approve the final budget in the month of December.

The administration of agricultural organizations, laboratories of agricultural chemistry, and of other organizations connected with higher institutes of agriculture and with the institutes of veterinary medicine shall be distinct from that of the institute proper.

The net profit of agricultural organizations, after property and agricultural improvements have been made, shall be entered as extraordinary income on the credit side of the budget of each institute.

Article 59. — The estimated budgets of royal universities and royal higher institutes shall not be subject to the approval of the Minister of National Education, but shall be forwarded to him for his information one month before the beginning of the fiscal period.

The general budget and the accounts of all special administration shall be transmitted by the president of the administrative council directly to the Controller's Office for verification and auditing.

Copies of the general budget and of the above-mentioned special accounts shall be transmitted to the Minister of National Education for his information.

Paragraph 5. — University Consortia

Article 60. — It shall be the duty of rectors and directors to promote the interest of, and encourage financial contributions from, organizations and private individuals on behalf of the universities and institutes which they control; and they shall be especially charged with the duty to promote the formation of consortia so as to coordinate undertakings in the most useful and efficient manner possible for the maintenance and operation of universities and institutes.

Article 61. — University consortia shall possess juridical personality.

Each consortia shall be established by an agreement which shall fix the relations between the organizations and the private individuals participating in the consortia proper, and each shall have a constitution which shall regulate its organization and activities .

The agreement and constitution shall be approved by a royal decree issued on the proposal of the Ministry of National Education, after a hearing before the Council of State, and shall be published in the Official Gazette (*Gazzetta Ufficiale*) of the Kingdom.

SECTION II — PERSONNEL

Chapter I. — Official Professors

Paragraph 1. — General Regulations and Permanent Positions

Article 62. — Official instruction shall be imparted by full-time professors and by adjunct professors.

Professors of universities and institutes referred to in tables A and B are government professors; the legal status of professors of universities and institutes referred to in Table B shall be the same as that of professors of universities and institutes referred to in Table A.

Article 63. — In the case of universities and higher institutes referred to in Table A, and the higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences, the lists of full professors in each faculty and school are fixed by the annexed Table D.

In addition to the full-time professorships assigned to the individual faculties or schools of each university in accordance with Table D, the creation of other positions by a royal decree shall be permissible, even for specially determined subjects, provided that the necessary funds are supplied by chartered associations or private individuals through agreements with the universities or higher institutes, which agreements are to be approved by the said royal decree. The regular professors filling the positions thus created shall be entitled to the same salary and legal status as other full professors.

By means of a royal decree issued with the approval of the Higher Council of National Education, changes may be made in the distribution of full-time professorships referred to in the first paragraph of the present article. Such changes shall be in accordance with the regulations contained in Articles 18 and 20 and with the changes effected in the courses and subjects of study. In the case of universities and higher institutes referred to in Table A, changes may also affect the distribution of full-time professorships among two or more universities or institutes; in the case of higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences, however, the changes may be effected only within the jurisdiction of each institute.

Article 64. — In the case of universities and institutes referred to in Table B, exclusive of the higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences, the full-time professorships in each faculty or school shall be determined by the agreement for the maintenance of the university or institute. The number of positions must be sufficient to guarantee the efficient functioning of the faculty or school proper.

Article 65. — Vacancies created in a faculty or school shall be filled by new appointments or by transfers.

Except for the provisions of the following paragraph, the faculty or school shall decide upon the manner in which available positions shall be filled. Decisions on new appointments to be made on the basis of competitive examinations shall be made not later than the 15th day of October; in the case of transfers or appointments to be made in accordance with Article 81, the decision must be made not later than the 15th day of November.

Positions fixed by the lists of full-time professors for each higher institute of economic and commercial sciences shall be reserved for the teaching of basic subjects. The complementary subjects of study shall not be taught by full-time professors, except when, in accordance with the provisions of Article 63, paragraph 2, a corresponding full-time position is established at the same institute by special endowment of chartered associations or private individuals and without burdening the State budget.

Article 66. — Full-time professorships assigned to each faculty or school shall become available, for the purpose of the preceding article, twenty days after the transfer of the regular professor or twenty days after the position becomes vacant because of the death of the incumbent or for any other reason.

Article 67. — No full-time professorships shall be left vacant for a period of more than two years except for reasons adjudged to be adequate by the Higher Council of National Education.

If after a lapse of two years no action shall have been taken by the faculties or schools, the Minister, having consulted with the Higher Council on the designation of a professor for the position, shall proceed to appoint a regular professor on the nomination of a commission which shall be appointed and constituted in accordance with Article 70 .

Paragraph 2. — Competitive Examinations and Appointments

Article 68. With the exception of the provisions of Article 81, whenever a faculty or school decides to fill a vacancy by making a new appointment, it shall propose to the Minister that competitive examinations be held.

In holding competitive examinations, the regulations contained in the decree of the Head of the Government, dated June 16, 1932, and relating to competitive examinations for government positions, shall be observed insofar as they are applicable.

The competitive examination shall be opened to all by a decree published in the *Official Gazette* of the Kingdom and in the *Official Bulletin of the Ministry of National Education* at least two months before the last day for filing applications. The examination shall be based on titles and degrees; however, the board of examiners may require the applicants to take an aptitude test and, if necessary, a practical test.

Decisions of faculties or schools affecting new appointments to be made on the basis of competitive examinations must be approved by the Higher Council of National Education.

Article 69. — Competitive examinations proposed by faculties and schools, in accordance with Article 65, during the period from October 16 to October 15th of the following year, may be announced at any time until the following April.

New appointments shall not be effective prior to November 1st nor after December 1st. After this period has terminated, appointments shall become effective during the corresponding period of the following year.

Article 70. — The board of examiners shall be composed of five members.

The faculty or school which has requested the competitive examination shall designate three professors or experts on the subject in which the examination is to be held.

The faculties and schools to which the subject of the examination normally belongs (excluding the faculty or school requesting the examination) together designate six full-time professors who are or who have been regular professors of the subject in question. Only when such professors are lacking may experts on the subject be designated.

For the purposes of the preceding paragraph, the faculties of political, economic and commercial sciences shall be considered as faculties of jurisprudence; the faculties of veterinary medicine as faculties of medicine and surgery; the faculties of architecture as faculties of engineering; and the faculties of agricultural science as faculties of mathematics, physics and natural sciences.

The Higher Council of National Education shall designate six full professors or specialists of the subject in which the competitive examination is to be held.

The Minister shall appoint the commission, selecting one member from the first group of nominations, two from the second group, and two from the third.

Full-time professors who propose to take the competitive examination shall not be included in the nominations to the board of examiners. Should they be so nominated, they shall not be permitted to take the examination.

Professors or specialists who are members of the first section of Higher Council shall not be nominated.

Article 71. — The manner in which nominations may be made by faculties and schools shall be established by ministerial ordinance.

The choice of those proposed by the faculties and schools shall be made by the President of the first section of the Higher Council of National Education.

Article 72. When full-time positions in special schools are to be filled the Minister, on the proposal of the executive committee of the first section of the Higher Council of National Education, shall specify from what faculties or schools the nominations referred to in the preceding articles should be made.

After a hearing of the above-mentioned executive committee, a ministerial ordinance shall establish in what cases the members of special schools should be designated for the competitive examinations of other faculties or schools.

On the proposal of the same committee, the Minister may include among the designations of special competitive examinations even professors of faculties or schools outside the one for which the competitive examination is being held. In such a case, the above-mentioned professors shall make the designations together with the faculties or schools to which the position belongs.

Article 73. — The boards of examiners for competitive examinations shall meet in Rome.

The board, in an appropriate report, shall propose not more than three candidates whom it deems worthy of filling the position, classifying them in the order of their merit and never as equals. The report must be published in its entirety in the *Official Bulletin of the Ministry of National Education*.

Having heard the opinion of the Higher Council of National Education concerning the regularity of these acts, the Minister shall decide on their approval. He shall then communicate to the interested faculty or school the names of the candidates proposed by the board of examiners.

By an absolute majority vote of the full professors present at the meeting, the faculty or school shall designate to the Minister one of the candidates proposed by the board for appointment.

When the positions to be filled are in royal universities or royal higher institutes, the Minister, after having ascertained the regularity of the procedure, shall make the appointment by his own decree if the nominee is the first on the list.

Whenever the nomination of the faculty or school falls upon the second or the third on the list proposed by the board of examiners, the appointment shall not be made unless the candidate or candidates whose name appears first on the list refuses the appointment or obtains an appointment in some other faculty or school or institute, or unless he is already a full professor in an institute of university grade.

Article 74. — The expenses for the boards of examiners, in the case of competitive examinations for positions in universities or higher institutes referred to in Table A, shall be defrayed by the State; in the case of competitive examinations for positions in universities and higher institutes referred to in Table B, expenses shall be defrayed by the universities and by the institutes proper.

However, other universities and higher institutes which have availed themselves of the results of the competitive examination shall reimburse the university or higher institute which has defrayed the expenses; its share shall be determined by the total expenses divided by the number of eligible candidates.

In case the procedure of the examination is declared null and void the expenses shall be charged to the State budget.

Members of the boards of examiners are entitled to be reimbursed for their travelling expenses. They shall also receive a remuneration to be fixed by the general university regulations.

Article 75. — Those who, in the opinion of the Administration, do not possess the requisites of upright moral and physical conduct, shall not be admitted to the competitive examinations for positions of full-time professors in institutes of higher education; and even when admitted, they shall not be appointed to such positions.

Article 76. — After the decision of the faculty or school for which the competitive examination was held, and within a period of two years from the date of the approval of the procedure of the examination, other faculties or schools may avail themselves of the results of the competitive examination by designating to the minister for appointment, according to the provisions of the preceding articles, one of the candidates proposed by the board of examiners, which candidate has not been appointed to the position for which the examination was held, or who, having already been chosen by a school or faculty, has refused the appointment.

Whenever successful candidates in competitive examinations held for positions in royal universities or royal higher institutes have not been offered an appointment in a university or higher institute, the Minister, in accordance with the provisions of the last paragraph of Article 73, may appoint such candidates to the vacancy for which the examination was held, or to a vacancy in the same subject in another royal university or royal higher institute which may have unsuccessfully requested the holding of a competitive examination in the year preceding the approval of the competitive examination just held. Such appointments may be made by the Minister after one month and within a period of two years from the date of the total or partial approval of the graded list of successful candidates.

Article 77. — Those who have taken a competitive examination for position of full-time professor in universities or institutes of higher education and who are included in the list of the three successful candidates

shall also be considered successful candidates in the competitive examination for the royal institutes of secondary education for that subject or group of subjects which shall be determined by the Executive Committee of the second section of the Higher Council of National Education.

Depending on whether they are or are not full-time instructors in the secondary schools, such persons shall be appointed or transferred to full-time instructorships in the subject or group of subjects, in accordance with the regulations governing full-time appointments and transfers of secondary school teachers.

Article 78. — Full-time professors are of two grades—ordinary and extraordinary. They are appointed as extraordinary professors for a period of three solar years during which time they can be dismissed from office by an appropriate decision of the faculty or school.

At the completion of the third solar year of effective and uninterrupted service, they may obtain an appointment as ordinary professor. This action shall be based on an evaluation of their scientific and educational work made by a commission appointed by the Minister upon the advice of the Higher Council of National Education, and composed of three professors or specialists of the subject or related subjects. The Faculty or School Council shall submit to the Commission an appropriate report on the work and teaching efficiency of the candidate. The report shall also include a statement of the manner in which the candidate has fulfilled his general academic duties during the three-year period.

When the judgment shall be unfavorable, the professors, with the approval of the Higher Council, may be permitted to continue in service for an additional period of two years, at the end of which time their merits shall again be judged by a new commission.

While awaiting the judgment necessary for appointment to the category of ordinary professors they shall be considered as in active service. Appointments to ordinary professorships shall go into effect on the day following that in which the professors have completed the three-year period or, in the above-mentioned special cases, the five-year period of service as an extraordinary professor.

Those who are unable to obtain appointment as ordinary professors shall be dismissed from the service in the month following that in which the unfavorable judgment rendered against him shall have become effective.

Professors who are appointed by virtue of Article 81 shall enjoy, from the date of their appointment, the rank of ordinary professor and a corresponding salary.

In accordance with the third paragraph of this article, members of commissions are entitled to reimbursement for travelling expenses and to the remunerations provided for by article 74.

Other expenses shall be defrayed by the State, in the case of universities and institutes referred to in Table A; in the case of those referred

to in Table B, such expenses shall be defrayed by the universities and institutes.

Article 79. — Whenever appointments which have been made on the basis of competitive examinations shall refer to persons already holding positions as full professors, such persons shall preserve their individual seniority and the rank which they occupied at the time of the appointment.

Article 80. — The appointment of extraordinary professors on the basis of competitive examinations, as provided for in the preceding article, may be made not only for the subject for which the examination was held but also for a subject that may be part of it.

One or more professors may be appointed in the same faculty or school on the basis of the same competitive examination.

Article 81. — Disregarding the procedure required by article 68, an appointment may be made in the case of a person who is not included in the lists of full professors of universities or higher institutes, but whom by reason of his publications, discoveries or scholarship, enjoys such high reputation and prestige in his particular field as to be considered an authority on that subject. In such a case the proposal of the faculty or school must be made with the approval of at least three-fourths of the full professors connected with it, and shall be accompanied by an appropriate report. The Minister shall submit the proposal to the Higher Council of National Education; and if that body approves by a two-thirds vote of its members, the person in question shall be appointed to fill the vacancy of the full-time position.

Appointments made by virtue of the preceding paragraph shall not go into effect before the 1st of November, nor later than the 1st of December of each year.

Article 82. — All measures concerning new appointments and the conferring of the rank of ordinary professor shall be adopted by a ministerial decree. All acts related thereto shall be published in full in the *Official Bulletin* of the Ministry of National Education.

Article 83. — All full-time and adjunct professors in royal universities and royal higher institutes must take an oath in the following form:

"I swear allegiance to the King, to his royal successors, and to the Fascist Régime; that I will faithfully observe the Constitution and laws of the Kingdom; that I will exercise the powers of my office as teacher and fulfill all my academic duties with the object of forming hard-working upright citizens, devoted to the Fatherland and to the Fascist Régime.

"I swear that I do not belong, or have intentions of belonging to any association or party whose activities are irreconcilable with the duties of my office."

Paragraph 3. — Duties and Discipline.

Article 84. — Though their professorships may provide for first assistants, second assistants, or readers, full professors shall be obliged to devote to their teaching, whether in the form of lectures or exercises, as many hours per week as the nature and scope of the subject may require. They shall also be obliged to observe the pre-established school hours; to look after the administration of studios, institutes, clinics, laboratories, etc. connected with their professorships; to participate in academic and related exercises to which they may be called—namely, meetings of the councils of universities or institutes; committees for examinations in individual subjects or for final degrees, diploma or State examinations; committees for the appointment of full professors or for qualifying private docents; examination committees for competitive examinations for positions in secondary schools and institutes, etc.

Article 85. — Professors are guaranteed freedom of instruction, but they shall be obliged to comply with the decisions of the faculty or school so far as the coordination of their respective programs is concerned.

Article 86. — Professors are obliged to reside permanently at the seat of the university or institute to which they belong.

However, they may be authorized by the rector or director, after a hearing with the faculty or school council, to reside in a nearby city, provided that it will not hinder the full and regular fulfillment of the duties of their office.

Article 87. — The following disciplinary punishments may be inflicted upon full professors, according to the gravity of their offence:

- 1) Censure
- 2) Dismissal from office and withholding of salary up to one year
- 3) Dismissal from office
- 4) Removal from office without loss of pension or grants
- 5) Removal from office with loss of pension or grants.

Article 88. — Censure is a statement of blame for neglect of duties of office or for irregular conduct which does not constitute grave insubordination and which does not harm the dignity and honor of the professor.

It shall be made in writing by the Minister or by the rector of the university or by the director of the institute after a hearing at which the accused may defend himself. If such punishment be inflicted by a rector or director, an appeal may be taken to the Minister within fifteen days from the date of notification.

The censure of rectors and directors shall be imposed by the Minister alone.

Article 89. — Punishment referred to under numbers 2, 3, 4, and 5 of Article 87 shall be applied according to the circumstances for the following offences:

- a) Serious insubordination
- b) Habitual neglect of the duties of office
- c) Habitual irregularity of conduct
- d) Acts which in any way may injure the honor or dignity of the professor.

The punishment referred to under number 2 shall carry with it, throughout its duration besides the loss of salary, dismissal from teaching and from academic and related functions, and the loss, for all purposes, of seniority. The professor who has suffered such punishment cannot, for ten solar years thereafter, be appointed rector of a university, director of an institute, or dean of a faculty or school.

The above punishment shall be imposed by the Minister acting with the concurrence of a Disciplinary Court, composed of the Under-Secretary of State for National Education, who shall preside over it, and eight members elected from the members of the first section of the Higher Council. These men shall hold office for a period of two years and may be reappointed.

The Disciplinary Court shall be established by royal decree on the proposal of the Minister of National Education.

The presence of at least five members of the Court shall be necessary for the validity of its meetings.

The defendant must be officially notified of the charges, and of the time during which he may present his reply. He has the right to be heard personally by the Disciplinary Court.

Article 90. — Whenever the gravity of the charges may require, the Minister may order the removal of a professor from office and the suspension of his salary for an indeterminate period. This may be done even before he has learned of the reply of the person concerned and without complying with the regular disciplinary procedure.

Article 91. — The rector or director may order the temporary discontinuance of such courses as may cause serious inconveniences or disorders of any nature.

Article 92. — Insofar as they do not conflict with the provisions of the Consolidated Law, Article 63, paragraphs 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 9, and Article 66 of the Royal decree of December 30, 1923, No. 2960, containing regulations for the discipline of civil employees of the State Administration are applicable also to full professors.

Paragraph 4 — Transfers

Article 93. — With their consent, full professors may be transferred to a place where the same subject is taught.

They may also be transferred to a place where a different subject is taught, provided that they have been regular professors of the same subject, or that they have been included in the list of three successful candidates for a professorship in that subject for no longer than a period of two years, or that they are to teach a subject which is a part of the subject which they have been teaching in the past.

Except for the cases referred to in the preceding paragraph, full professors may be transferred to teach a different subject if they are ordinary professors or if they have been adjunct professors in that subject for a period of at least three years.

All transfers shall be effected by a resolution of the particular faculty or school adopted by a majority vote of the full professors belonging to the said faculty or school; but in deciding on the transfers referred to in the preceding paragraph, the opinion of the Higher Council of National Education shall be heard.

Full professors connected with private universities and institutes may be transferred to fill vacancies in universities or institutes listed under tables A and B, provided that the regulations contained in the present article are observed.

The Minister, having heard the opinion of the Higher Council, may defer or withhold his consent to the transfer of professors whenever this may be deemed advisable.

Professors shall not be entitled to an indemnity for transfers made at the expense of the national budget.

Transfers shall not go into effect before the first of November nor later than the first of December of each year.

Article 94. — The title of a course taught by a full professor may be modified upon the proposal of the interested faculty or school with the consent of the professor in charge.

In such a case the Higher Council of National Education, in expressing its opinion concerning the change in the constitution, shall also express its opinion in regard to the desirability of transferring the professor.

Article 95. — All measures concerning the transfer of professors shall be adopted by a decree of the Minister; and all matters relating thereto must be published in full in the *Official Bulletin* of the Ministry of National Education.

Paragraph 5 — Exchanges with Foreign Countries

Article 96. — Full professors of royal universities and royal higher

institutes may be placed at the disposal of the Minister of Foreign Affairs by a decree of the Minister of National Education for teaching and scientific positions in foreign universities and higher institutes, whether they be Italian universities or institutes or dependent upon foreign governments. Such professors shall preserve their rank as full professors in active service so far as their careers and salaries are concerned.

The salaries of substitutes for the teaching of courses belonging to the above-mentioned regular professors shall be paid from the State Budget in accordance with Article 116.

Provision for carrying out the aims of the preceding paragraphs shall be made in conjunction with the Minister of Finance from funds referred to in Article 287.

Article 97. — The Minister of National Education, acting with the Minister of Foreign Affairs, may authorize professors of higher institutes in foreign countries to teach temporarily in the royal universities and royal higher institutes of the Kingdom. For this purpose the consent of the rectors and directors is necessary and the Council of the faculty or school concerned shall also be heard.

Article 98 — Italian professors who hold the title of full professor or who have a contract to teach for a period of at least three years in legally recognized foreign universities, if they have been successful in a competitive examination for professorships in Italian institutes of higher education, may ask to be transferred to a position in the same or other subject in the above institutes, in accordance with the regulations which govern the transfer of university professors.

Whenever any of the above-mentioned professors is transferred or appointed to a full-time position in an Italian institute of higher education, the service rendered in foreign universities in accordance with the conditions stated in the preceding paragraph shall be computed, for the purpose of seniority, in the same manner as it would have been computed had the service been rendered in Italian institutes of higher education.

Such service shall be taken into account in computing the pension provided that the special deduction of six percent of the salary received at the time the request was made and for a period of time equal to the length of service shall be paid to the Treasury.

Paragraph 6 — Salaries

Article 99. — Salaries of full professors shall be determined:

- 1) In the case of universities and higher institutes referred to in Table A and the royal higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences by the Royal decree of November 11, 1923, No. 2395, and subsequent amendments;

- 2) In the case universities and higher institutes referred to in Table

B, excluding the royal higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences, by the internal regulations of each university or institute. Such regulation, however, may not fix salaries below those indicated in Table E, nor higher than those fixed for professors of like seniority in number 1 of the present article in accordance with the provision of the last paragraph of Article 4 of the Royal decree-law of November 20, 1930, No. 1491.

Article 100. — The salaries and pensions of full professors connected with universities and higher institutes referred to in Table A shall be paid from the State budget.

The State budget shall also provide for the payment of the salaries of the regular professors of chairs established in said universities and higher institutes in accordance with the second paragraph of Article 63. Each year, however, the university or institute shall pay the total emoluments due to each professor, and the total sums withheld from the salaries, these sums are to be entered in the income accounts of the Treasury.

The salaries of full professors connected with universities and higher institutes referred to in Table B, including also the royal higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences, shall be paid from the budget of each institute or university. The pensions of these professors, excepting those connected with the royal higher institutes of engineering of Genoa and Turin, shall be paid from the State budget. The universities and institutes shall turn over to the State budget the deductions made from the salaries of professors; these deductions shall be entered in the income accounts of the Treasury.

Article 101. — Full professors of the universities and higher institutes referred to in Table B, and of private universities and higher institutes when transferred to universities and higher institutes referred to in Table A, shall be granted, in accordance with the provisions of the Royal decree of November 11, 1923, No. 2395, and subsequent amendments, the rank and salary corresponding to the years of service rendered as full university professor.

Article 102. — Professors shall not be entitled to any remuneration for the management of studios, institutes, clinics, laboratories, etc.

If the measures referred to in articles 81 and 93 are adopted in order to fill full-time vacancies by transfers or new appointments, the transferred or newly appointed professors may receive by special arrangement a personal grant to be paid from the budget of the university or institute. Such grants, however, shall not be considered in computing pensions. The decision shall be made by the Administrative Council which shall first consult with the Academic Senate and the faculty or school council concerned; it shall be subject to the approval of the Minister of National Education acting with the Minister of Finance.

Paragraph 7 — Extra Appointments and Orders

Article 103. — Except as provided for in the following articles of this paragraph, no one may hold the position of a full-time professor in a university or higher institute, and at the same time hold any other full-time position in the State, provinces, municipalities, or other chartered associations.

Article 104. — Full professors in universities and higher institutes shall be permitted to hold full-time positions in the Royal Higher Normal School of Pisa.

Full professors shall also be permitted to occupy other positions which by law are connected with teaching.

Article 105. — The Administration shall have the power to permit full professors in universities or higher institutes to occupy positions as higher officers in the Royal Army, the Royal Navy and the Royal Air Force when, in the opinion of the Minister of National Education and the minister of the war department concerned, the subjects in question are related to the professional subject matter peculiar to that division of the army to which the officer belongs.

Permission granted in accordance with the provisions of the preceding paragraph shall be given by the Minister of National Education and the minister of the department to which the officer belongs; it may be revoked at any time, but the person concerned shall have the right to choose between the two offices.

Whenever the officer shall be assigned, in his dual capacity, to a position which will not permit him to fulfill his duties as a professor, the Minister of National Education may grant him a leave of absence without salary or other grant for a period not exceeding two years. If at the end of that period the officer has not obtained a position in a city which will permit him to hold both offices, he shall choose one of them; otherwise, he shall resign his office as professor.

During the leave of absence the subject shall be taught by a substitute who shall be paid from the State budget.

As long as the officer remains in permanent active service, he shall receive the salary of a professor reduced by 6000 lire per year, which must be further reduced by 12 percent in accordance with the Royal decree-law of November 20, 1930, No. 1491.

Article 106. — It is prohibited to issue orders transferring full professors from one university or institute to another.

Full professors, however, may be entrusted with special studies and with the administration of bureaus, according to the provisions of the Royal decree of May 8, 1924, No. 843.

Paragraph 8 — Interruption of and Cessation from Service.

Article 107. — Regulations concerning leaves of absence for civil employees of the State shall be applicable to professors. However, leaves of absence granted for family reasons cannot terminate between June 1st and September 30th of any year, except in cases in which the maximum period of the leave has terminated.

In the course of the academic year, leaves of absence for family reasons shall not be granted for more than thirty days.

For exceptional and justifiable reasons of study and scientific research requiring a professor of a university or higher institute to remain in a foreign country, the Minister may, with the consent of the rector or director of the particular university or institute, grant him a leave of absence for one solar year. Such a concession, however, shall not be renewed in the following year.

Article 108. — In cases of elimination of universities or higher institutes and in cases of elimination of faculties or schools, the provisions of articles 87, 89 (excluding the second paragraph), 91, 92, and 94 of the Royal decree of December 30, 1923, No. 2960 are applicable to professors.

The powers given to the Administrative Council shall be exercised by the Higher Council of National Education.

Article 109. — In so far as they do not conflict with the provisions of the present Consolidated Law, articles 46, 47 (first paragraph), and 49 of the Royal decree of December 30, 1923, No. 2960, containing regulations governing the dismissal of civil employees of the State, shall be applicable to professors.

On the proposal of a faculty or school and with the approval of the Higher Council of National Education, full professors who may have discontinued their service by a voluntary resignation may be readmitted to the service within the limits of their full-time positions.

Article 110. — Professors shall be retired at the age of seventy-five years.

Those who reach seventy-five years of age during the academic year shall continue in office until the end of the same academic year if they have actually begun their course of instruction.

When a professor who has been retired because he has reached the age limit also holds the office of rector of a university or director of a higher institute, he may continue to hold the latter office until the end of the two-year period for which he was appointed.

Professors may be retired from service by a decree of the Minister acting with the advice of the Higher Council of National Education, when it is ascertained that even before reaching the age limit stipulated in the first paragraph of this article, they were unable to carry out efficiently the duties of their office. Those concerned may present their arguments to the Higher Council.

Article 111. — The title of "Professor Emeritus" may be conferred upon ordinary professors who have been retired or whose resignations have been accepted, provided, they have been in service for at least twenty years; the title of "Honorary Professor" may be conferred whenever such service shall have been for at least fifteen years.

The above titles shall be conferred by a royal decree on the proposal of the Minister acting upon the advice of the faculty or school to which the professor concerned belonged at the time he discontinued his services.

No special academic prerogatives shall be exercised by "emeritus" and "honorary" professors.

Paragraph 9 — Assistantships and Substitutes

Article 112. — Assistants shall be appointed and the necessary procedure and remunerations shall be established by decisions of the Administrative Council, made on the proposal of the faculties or schools concerned and approved by the Academic Senate.

The expenses incident thereto shall be paid from the budget of the university or institute. Assistants in the royal higher institutes of agriculture and veterinary medicine shall be paid by the State in proportion to the number of vacant full-time positions; in such cases the remuneration shall be that fixed by Article 16, third paragraph.

Assistants shall be appointed in the following order:

- a) Private docents of the subject or related subjects.
- b) Those who are recognized as competent in the subject to which they are to be appointed as assistants by virtue of their publications, special research, administrative and teaching experience.
- c) Full professors of other faculties or schools.

Within each of the above categories, appointments shall be made on the basis of the appointee's competency in the particular field, taking into consideration publications and his other titles.

A full professor who accepts an appointment as assistant in his own or in any other faculty or school without remuneration shall be given preference in making appointments, provided that the faculty or school believes that he is best fitted.

Appointments as assistants shall not be given to those who have reached the age of seventy-five years.

Assistantships may be revoked at any time in accordance with the provisions of the first paragraph whenever the professor is not fulfilling his duties.

Article 113. — Full professors of universities and higher institutes shall not be given appointments to assistantships which are paid for by the same faculty or school. In exceptional cases, however, such appoint-

ments may be permitted by the Minister with the approval of the Higher Council of National Education.

Full professors may receive appointments to assistantships outside their own school, whether free or for which there is remuneration, under the following conditions:

a) That the decisions of the faculty or school show clearly and indisputably that there are no other means of providing for the subject.

b) That the distance and the ordinary means of transportation make it easy for the professor to leave his own school and return to it in the same day.

c) That the head of the institute to which the professor belongs gives his approval after having heard the opinion of the faculty or school concerned.

d) That the Minister of National Education approve the proposal.

To obtain an assistantship in institutes which do not depend on the Ministry of National Education, the conditions specified in b), c), and d) shall be observed.

Article 114. — Except as provided for in the second paragraph of Article 8 of the present Consolidated Law, no one holding a salaried appointment paid from the State budget or from the budget of any other public organization shall receive more than one salaried teaching appointment. A second appointment to a salaried assistantship may be made only in case of absolute necessity.

In the case of an appointment to teach in military institutes in the interests of national defense, the provisions of this and the preceding articles may be disregarded with the authorization of the Minister.

Article 115. — To provide temporarily for the teaching of any subject, directors and full professors of royal institutes of secondary instruction may be ordered to teach in universities or higher institutes. Such orders shall be issued by a decree of the Minister, on the advice of the faculty or school concerned and with the approval of the Academic Senate as well as, in all cases, of the Administrative Council.

In the case of professors or directors who are engaged in teaching, the university or institute shall return to the State all salaries and other remunerations to which they are entitled while such orders shall be in force. In the case of directors who have no teaching duties, such sums shall be returned as are due to the person who performs the duties of the director for the period that the latter is ordered elsewhere.

Article 116. — Except as hereinafter provided, regulations referred to in the preceding paragraphs shall also be applied in case the teaching appointment is made to provide a substitute for the regular professor.

Whenever a full professor is prevented by some legitimate reason from performing the duties of his office for a period of time that will,

presumably, be no longer than two months, the rector or director shall provide for a substitute on the proposal of the professor himself. The expenses incident thereto shall be charged to the budget of the university or institute.

Whenever a professor shall be prevented from performing his duties because of a special appointment made by the Government for a period of more than one month, the expense of providing a substitute shall be paid by the State budget. The substitute shall receive during his period of active service a compensation at the rate of 6,000 lire yearly, when he holds no other remunerative office, and at the rate of 4,000 lire yearly in other cases. Such compensation shall be subject to a reduction of 12 per cent in accordance with the Royal decree-law of November 20, 1930, No. 1491. In no case shall a person receive a special allowance on account of the high cost of living.

Vacancies to be filled by substitutes as described in the preceding paragraph may also be filled by a professor from schools of a different category. In such a case, the university or institute shall not be held for the payment of the salaries referred to in the last paragraph of the preceding article.

Full professors shall not be appointed as substitutes if paid by their own faculty or school. In exceptional cases, such appointments may be permitted by the Minister.

Chapter II — Private Docents

Paragraph 1 — General Regulations

Article 117. — In addition to the official courses, universities and institutes may offer private courses.

Such courses may be taught by:

- a) Full professors, in the faculties and schools to which they belong, in their regular or related subjects.
- b) Those who are no longer full professors, except where they have been removed for disciplinary reasons, or by virtue of Article 78, paragraph 6 or of Article 110, last paragraph, in subjects which they have taught or in related subjects.
- c) Those who have qualified as private docents.

No one may repeat as a private course a subject taught as an official course.

Private courses shall have the same legal value to students who register for them as the corresponding official courses, in accordance with the rules established by the constitution of each university or higher institute.

Paragraph 2 — Qualifications

Article 118. — To qualify as a private docent in a particular subject, the candidate must:

a) Possess a degree or diploma obtained at an institute of higher education. In special cases, to be determined by the committee referred to in the following article, persons without degrees or diplomas or who have secured them in foreign institutes, may be eligible to qualify as a private docent.

b) Furnish proof of his scientific ability and of his aptitude as a teacher of the subject in question by means of publications, supplemented by a lecture on those publications, by teaching tests, and possibly by experimental tests. The examining commission shall have the power to exempt from the teaching and experimental tests those persons whose preparation it deems satisfactory.

The qualifying certificate shall be conferred by a decree of the Minister for a period of five years. By a ministerial decree, it may be confirmed permanently by a decision of the faculty or school, which shall first ascertain the scientific and teaching ability of the private docent during the five-year period.

The five-year period referred to in the preceding paragraph may be extended if the private docent has not, for legitimate reasons, practiced his teaching. This shall be done in accordance with the rules contained in the general regulations of the university.

Article 119. — The fitness of candidates shall be determined by the same committee for each subject. The committee shall be appointed by the Minister on the proposal of the Higher Council of National Education, and shall be composed of three professors or specialists in the subject or related subjects.

In addition to the three regular members of the commission, the Higher Council shall designate two other examiners who shall be called upon in the order of their designation to substitute for those who, for justifiable reasons, cannot take part in the meeting of the commission.

If by a simple majority vote the commission favors the granting of the qualifying diploma, the Minister shall turn over the matter to the Higher Council for final determination.

There shall be no appeal from the decision of the commissions or of the Higher Council.

The members of the commissions shall hold office for a period of two years and shall not be reappointed until after the lapse of another two-year period.

The commissions shall convene once a year in Rome at a time fixed by a ministerial ordinance.

To cover the expenses of these commissions, candidates shall be

required to pay a fee, the amount and manner of payment of which shall be determined by the general regulations of the university.

Article 120. — A private docentship may be awarded in any subject even if there is no official course of study corresponding to it in the regular curriculum of the universities and higher institutes.

In such a case, the Higher Council of National Education, before appointing the examination commission, shall itself decide whether, on the basis of the importance and scientific autonomy of the subject in which the private docentship is requested, the proceeding should be started on the application presented.

Article 121. — Qualification for private docentship may be granted by the Minister to those who have been included in the lists of three successful candidates in competitive examinations for university professorships in the same subject for which the competitive examination was held.

Article 122. — Exclusive of the regulations contained in articles 118 and 119, persons who have become especially prominent in the subjects they seek to teach may be qualified for private docentships.

Qualification certificates shall be conferred by a decree of the Minister, acting with the advice of the Higher Council of National Education.

Paragraph 3 — Duties and Discipline

Article 123. — A private docentship may be established in any university or higher institute having a faculty or school whose curriculum is related to the subject which the private docent is qualified to teach.

To be admitted to the practice of his profession the private docent must take an oath according to the formula contained in Article 83 of the present Consolidated Law.

The rules and regulations for the practice of the private docentship shall be contained in the general code of regulations of the university.

Article 124. — The annexed Table F fixes the fee for conferring the qualifying certificate and for the practice of the private docentship.

The first fee shall be turned over to the Public Treasury, and the second to the university or higher institute wherein the private docent intends to teach.

The fee paid in order to teach must be paid each time the private docent is transferred to another university or institute.

Article 125. — A private docent who, during the academic year, has actually taught a regular course, shall receive a remuneration at the end of the year commensurate with the importance of the course. Such

remuneration shall be paid entirely from the budget of the university or institute.

Private courses taught by full professors and by those whose positions are described in Article 1 of the Royal decree-law of June 1, 1933, No. 592, shall not be remunerated; nor shall there be any compensation for courses taught by private docents who, as first or second assistants to a professorship, teach some part of the official course of the same subject.

Article 126. — The following disciplinary measures may be taken against private docents, according to the seriousness of their offences:

- 1) Censure
- 2) Suspension from one to three years
- 3) Revocation of the qualifying certificate.

For reasons referred to in Article 88, censure shall be applied; for reasons specified in Article 89, the punishments referred to in numbers 2) and 3) shall be applied according to the circumstances of the case.

Censure shall be imposed in writing by the rector or director, after hearing the defence of the private docent.

Punishments referred to in numbers 2) and 3) shall be imposed by the Minister, with the concurrence of the executive committee of the first section of the Higher Council of National Education. The defendant shall be permitted to present his defence in writing or orally.

Whenever the seriousness of the offence warrants it, the rector or director may order the suspension of the qualification of a private docent for an indefinite period even before learning the explanation of the facts from the person concerned. But this shall not be done in the case of a regular disciplinary procedure.

The private docent who has received a penal sentence according to the provisions of Article 63 of the Royal decree-law of December 30, 1923, No. 2960, concerning the legal status of civil employees, or who, while holding a public office, may have been dismissed or removed from that office, shall have his qualification revoked.

Rectors and directors may exercise the powers referred to in Article 91 even where private courses are concerned.

Paragraph 4 — Ineligibility and Revocation

Article 127. — A private docent shall lose his qualification if, without sufficient excuse, he does not practice his profession for a period of five consecutive years. The loss of his position shall be formally announced by a decree of the Minister on the recommendation of the rector or director, after a hearing of the person concerned.

A private docent shall automatically become disqualified if he obtains an appointment as a full professor in a university or higher institute, except as provided in Article 117, paragraph 2, letter a).

Article 128. — Qualifying certificates may be revoked by the Minister whenever a private docent has shown, either in connection with the duties of his office or independently of it, that he cannot give sufficient guarantee to fulfill his duties faithfully, or whenever he places himself in a position incompatible with the general policies of the Government.

Before deciding on the revocation of the qualification, a period of time shall be fixed during which the person concerned shall be permitted to present his side of the matter.

Chapter III — Assistants

Article 129. — In universities and higher institutes, first assistants, second assistants and readers shall be employed according to the needs of the constituent faculties and schools.

To above categories of personnel shall be paid from the budgets of the university or institute, and their salaries, leaves of absence and legal status shall be determined by the internal regulations referred to in Article 44. The provisions relating thereto shall be determined by the Administrative Council, except as hereinafter provided.

The distribution of the said personnel among the professorships and scientific institutes of the various faculties and schools shall be determined by the Administrative Council on the proposal of the Academic Senate and after a hearing before the faculties and the schools constituting the university or institute.

Article 130. — First and second assistants shall be chosen through a competitive examination given to graduates and holders of diplomas in accordance with the methods established by the general university regulations; they shall be appointed by the Administrative Council for one academic year and may be reappointed from year to year on the proposal of the official professor of the subject.

Candidates without a degree may take part in the competitive examinations for first and second assistantships in royal higher institutes of architecture, and professorships of drawing in royal higher institutes and universities, provided they have other titles satisfactory to the appropriate faculty council.

Relatives of the official professor, up to the fourth degree inclusive, shall not be appointed as first or second assistants.

Appointments to first and second assistantships may be made also by means of transfers of full-time assistants and fellows connected with other institutions of higher education, provided that the transfer shall be for the same subject or for one related to that with which the first or second assistant was formerly connected. Such appointments may be made only at the request of the professor concerned and with the consent of the first or second assistant. In such cases, indemnities for transfers shall not be required.

Appointments to first assistantships, besides being made through competitive examinations, may also be made by the promotion of second assistants who have given three years of satisfactory service. The promotion shall be made on the proposal of the official professor of the subject.

Article 131. — The position of full professor in institutes of secondary education is incompatible with that of a first or second assistant.

In the manner and under the conditions prescribed in Article 115, such professors may, however, be temporarily ordered to perform the duties of first or second assistants in universities or higher institutes.

Article 132. — First and second assistants appointed on the basis of competitive examinations may be appointed after five years of continuous and satisfactory service to full professorships in institutes of secondary education of the first and second grade which depend on the Ministry of National Education; provided, however, that the full-time positions shall be available in the institutes at the time they terminate their period of service.

The appointment shall carry the rank of ordinary professor, and shall be made for the teaching of subjects or groups of subjects which, in the opinion of the executive committee of the first section of the Higher Council, correspond to those professorships with which the candidates were connected as first and second assistants.

Those that are appointed under the provisions of the preceding paragraph may ask for the recognition of not more than five years of service as first or second assistants in applying for a pension. In such cases they shall be required to contribute their share, the amount and manner of payment of which are established by the first article of the Royal decree-law of August 12, 1927, No. 1613.

However, if the universities or higher institutes from which they come have special regulations on pensions for these categories of personnel, all the years of service as first and second assistants shall be taken into account in computing the pension, and the incidental expenses shall be divided between the State and the university or institute in accordance with the provisions of Article 48 of the Consolidated Laws on Pensions, approved by the Royal decree-law of February 21, 1895, No. 70.

Article 133. — First and second assistants appointed on the basis of competitive examinations may be transferred, after five years of satisfactory service, to other branches of the public service, this being in addition to the provisions of the preceding article concerning transfers to full-time positions in institutes of secondary education. Such other careers of service and the manner of effecting the transfer shall be determined by a royal decree which shall be promulgated on the proposal of the Minister of National Education, acting with the Minister of Finance and such other ministers as may be concerned.

Article 134. — First and second assistants shall not hold their posi-

tions for more than a period of ten years, unless they shall have qualified as private docents. In no case shall they hold their positions after they have reached sixty years of age.

Article 135. — Under certain circumstances, extraordinary assistants may be appointed on the basis of competitive examinations in the place of ordinary assistants. The duties and salaries of such extraordinary assistants shall be determined by the Administrative Council in each individual case. In all cases, their compensation shall be lower than the initial salary of ordinary assistants. For this purpose, authorization shall be required from the Minister acting with the advice of the Higher Council of National Education. Extraordinary assistants may be reappointed in accordance with the regulations applicable to first and second assistants.

Besides the salaried first and second assistants referred to in the preceding articles, voluntary first and second assistants may be appointed by a decree of the rector or director, on the proposal of the official professor of the subject.

Voluntary first and second assistants shall be selected from among the graduates of universities and higher institutes. Relatives of the official professor up to and including the fourth degree shall not be eligible for appointment under him.

Article 136. — Readers may be appointed to the professorships of languages and literature.

Regulations concerning the legal status of ordinary first and second assistants shall be applied to readers, and their salaries shall not be higher than those of readers.

In the case of readers in foreign languages, the prerequisite of Italian citizenship may be disregarded.

Chapter IV. — Administrative Personnel

Article 137. — Each university and higher institute included under tables A and B shall have a secretary's office, which shall include also the offices of bursar and cashier.

The personnel connected with the secretary's office shall be paid by the university or institute and shall be divided into three groups:

- a) Executive
- b) Accounting
- c) Administrative

Full-time positions, salaries, leaves of absence, and legal status shall be fixed by the code of internal regulations described in Article 44 of the present Consolidated Law.

Salaries shall not be higher than those established for the correspond-

ing groups up to the ninth grade inclusive on the full-time lists of the State administration.

Article 138. — Competitive examinations for full-time positions in the office of the secretary of each university or institute shall be held by the Ministry of National Education according to the rules and methods established by the general university regulations.

The following are the requirements for admission to these competitive examinations:

- 1) For the executive group, one of the following degrees: law, political science, economic and commercial sciences, or maritime economic sciences.
- 2) For the accounting group, the diploma in accounting.
- 3) For the administrative group, a diploma from a secondary school of the first grade.

The transfer of executive personnel from one university or institute to another shall be permitted with the consent of the administrative councils of both institutions concerned.

Article 139. — Except as provided in the last paragraph of the present article, each university or institute shall have an executive director, who shall be included among the State employees and who shall be paid by the State.

The executive director, acting in conformity with the regulations established by the rector or director and the academic authorities, shall supervise all executive services and shall be responsible for the observance of legislative rules and regulations.

The annexed Table G indicates the grades of classification of full-time positions of the executive directors of royal institutes of higher education.

In institutes which do not have an executive director, these duties may be assigned for a period of one year by a decree of the Minister of National Education to an executive director of another institute of the same district. Such positions shall be maintained by the institute, the incumbents thereof to receive an annual compensation of 1500 lire.

Article 140. — Appointment of a first grade executive director shall be made on the basis of competitive examinations held in accordance with the rules established by the general university regulations.

The following may take part in these competitive examinations:

- a) Officers of the administrative group of royal institutes of higher education who have served in the same group for at least ten years.
- b) Group A officers of the State administrations, of not lower than the ninth grade, who hold degrees as prescribed in Article 138 of the present Consolidated Law, concerning admission to an administrative career in the royal institutes of higher education, and whose length of service meets

the requirements of the Royal decree of November 20, 1930, No. 1482, concerning admission to examinations for promotion to the eighth grade. Measures concerning the promotion of other civil servants of the State shall be applicable here.

Chapter V. — Technical and Subordinate Personnel

Article 141. — Technicians and subordinates shall be employed by universities and higher institutes in accordance with the needs of their faculties and schools.

These categories of personnel shall be maintained by the university or institute. Their legal status, salaries and leaves of absence shall be determined by the internal regulations referred to in Article 44 of the present Consolidated Law. However, the salaries of the subordinate personnel of the royal higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences shall be fixed by the schedules for doormen of the Central Administration of the State, in accordance with the Royal decree of November 11, 1923, No. 2395, and its subsequent amendments.

The Administrative Council shall determine the personnel required for the general services of the university or institute, and for the special services of the various faculties or schools, distributing such personnel whenever necessary among departments and scientific institutes. Decisions relating thereto shall be adopted on the proposal of the Academic Senate, after a hearing before the faculties and schools constituting the university or institute.

Section III. — Students

Chapter I — Educational Careers

Paragraph 1. — Registration

Article 142. — In universities and higher institutes registration may obtain only for students.

Except as provided in Article 39, letter c), registration at the same time at different universities or institutes of higher education, at different faculties or schools of the same university or institute, or for different courses toward a degree or diploma from the same faculty or school, is prohibited.

Article 143. — Those who pass the classical maturity examination may be enrolled in any faculty or school.

Those who pass the scientific maturity examination and Armenian students who have received their diplomas at the technical lyceum "Moorat Raphael" of Venice may enroll in any faculty except the faculties of Jurisprudence and of Letters and Philosophy. However, those who have

passed the maturity examination at Italian scientific lyceums in foreign countries and in the royal high school of Bengasi may enroll in any faculty, and the same right shall be given to the youths of the Italian islands in the Aegean Sea who have passed the scientific maturity examination in the royal high schools of Rhodes.

Those who have passed the maturity examination in art may enroll in the faculties of Architecture.

Those who have obtained qualifying diplomas as graduates from technical institutes of agriculture may enroll in the faculties of agriculture, provided they pass an examination in general culture to be given in accordance with the rules contained in the general university regulation.

Those who have obtained qualifying diplomas as graduates from agricultural, technical, industrial, nautical, commercial and surveying institutes may register in the faculties of economic and commercial sciences.

Article 144. — Only those students who have passed the diploma examination referred to in Article 161, may enroll in the applied courses of higher institutes of engineering regardless of the faculty or school in which they studied.

Officers and former officers of artillery and engineering who have regularly completed the course of applied artillery and engineering at Turin and who wish to receive a degree in engineering may enroll, respectively, in the second and third year of the three-year applied course in a higher institute of engineering; provided, however, that the courses taken and the examinations passed are approved by the faculty council.

Article 145. — Except as provided in Article 39, letters b) and c), and in Article 146, second paragraph, of the present Consolidated Law, only those holding a degree or a diploma may be admitted to the post-graduate schools of universities and institutes of higher education.

Only students enrolled in the third and fourth years of the same institute shall be admitted to the integrating courses in higher institutes of economic and commercial sciences.

Article 146. — Officers of aeronautical engineering who are in active service and possess a degree in engineering may, at the request of the Minister of Aeronautics, be admitted to the School of Aeronautical Engineering situated at the Royal Higher Institute of Engineering of Rome, and to the Graduate School of Aeronautical Construction at the Royal Higher Institute of Engineering of Turin.

At the request of the Minister of Aeronautics, officers of aeronautical engineering not possessing any degrees as required by the preceding paragraph may be permitted to attend one or more courses at the School of Aeronautical Engineering of Rome and at the Graduate School of Aeronautical Construction of Turin. At the end of the course they shall obtain only a certificate of the subjects studied and the grades received.

Article 147. — Italian citizens residing abroad, foreign-born Italians, and foreigners may be admitted to any university or higher institute in that year for which their studies already completed abroad are deemed sufficient by the competent academic authorities.

To obtain admission in accordance with the preceding paragraph, it shall be necessary to have a diploma from a foreign secondary school which is included in the approved list. The list of approved foreign secondary schools may be modified when necessary by a decree of the Minister of National Education.

Those who possess a diploma from a high school which is not included in the above-mentioned list may be admitted with the permission of the Minister, on the proposal of the competent academic authorities, after a hearing before the executive committee of the first section of the Higher Council of National Education.

Article 148. — The constitution of every university or higher institute shall determine the minimum number of subjects in each faculty and school for which students must register during the years prescribed, in order to fulfill the requirements for the degree or diploma they desire.

The subjects studied and the examinations passed at universities or higher institutes shall be recognized at any other university or institute. Differences in educational organization which may exist between the same faculties or schools in different universities, in accordance with Articles 18 and 20, shall not prevent students from transferring from one university or institute to another.

Article 149. — Those who have completed the university course requirements without obtaining a degree or diploma, or those who for any reason have interrupted their studies but who intend to exercise the rights to which they are entitled by virtue of their registration, shall be required to ask the university or institute each year for recognition of their status as students, and shall be required to pay the special fee referred to in Table H.

Though they may have satisfied the above requirements, those who do not take examinations for eight consecutive years shall renew their registration for courses and shall repeat the examinations in the subjects they have already passed.

Article 150. — All courses shall be open to the public. However, at the request of the private docents, private courses and, in any case, practical or experimental exercises and demonstrations shall be open only to regularly enrolled students.

Article 151. — Rectors and directors, after a hearing before the competent faculties and schools, shall look after the applications concerning the educational careers of young men and women.

In the case of decisions relating to transfers of students in accordance with the second paragraph of Article 148, and the necessary evalua-

tions of subjects completed and examinations passed at another university or institute, appeals may be taken to the Minister by the persons concerned within fifteen days after the rector's or director's notification of the action taken. His decision, rendered after a hearing before the executive committee of the first section of the Higher Council of National Education, shall be final.

Paragraph 2. — Fees

Article 152. — The annexed Table H determines the fees and surfees for each faculty; for the special and graduate schools, and for the courses referred to in the third paragraph of Article 201 the fees shall be fixed by the constitution of the institution concerned.

Matriculation and registration fees, and fees for students who are not candidates for a degree (*fuori corso*) and the surfees for repeating examinations shall be paid to the university or institute; the degree and diploma fees shall be paid to the Exchequer; the surfees for examinations in each subject and for degrees and diplomas, and the fees for the two-year preparatory diploma shall be divided as honorarium among the members of the examining commissions, or shall be paid to the university or institute according to the rules established by the general university regulations.

All fees and surfees shall be paid directly to the university or institute, except the degree and diploma fees.

In addition, students may be requested to pay special fees, according to the amounts fixed by the Administrative Council, on the proposal of the Academic Senate and after a hearing before the faculties and school constituting the university or institute.

Except as provided in Articles 153, 154, 155 and 156, there shall be no exemptions from the payment of fees and surfees.

Article 153. — Those who qualify under the conditions set out in the laws of June 14, 1928, No. 1312, and July 2, 1929, No. 1182, shall not be required to pay fees and surfees.

The total exemption referred to in Article 1, letter c), No. 5, of the law of June 14, 1928, No. 1312, shall be subject to the following conditions:

- 1) That the beneficiaries referred to in letters a) and b) of Article 2 of the same law shall have, respectively, seven or more, and ten or more living and dependent children who are Italian citizens.

- 2) That the students have passed with an average of not less than 70 percent in the examinations for admission to the university or institute, or the examinations advised by the faculty or school for the preceding year, or a corresponding number of examinations, in case they have pursued a different plan of studies and have not been failed in any test.

Article 154. — Students who are war orphans or who are crippled

or incapacitated as a result of a war and who are enrolled in the higher institute of economic and commercial sciences, shall be exempted from fees and surfees by decision of the Administrative Council; provided, however, that they do not forfeit these privileges by failure in examinations or as a result of their conduct, and provided also that they are in financial need.

The above provision shall also be applied to students who are orphans or who have become crippled or incapacitated in defense of the national cause, in accordance with the law of March 24, 1930, No. 454.

Article 155. — Officers of aeronautical engineering, admitted to the School of Aeronautical Engineering of the Royal Higher Institute of Engineering of Rome and to the Graduate School of Aeronautical Construction at the Royal Higher Institute of Engineering of Turin, under the provisions of Article 146, shall be exempt from the payment of all school fees and surfees.

Article 156. — Students who are citizens of foreign countries and whose parents reside abroad shall be exempt from the payment of one-half of all the school fees and surfees.

Students who are Italian citizens and whose families reside in Dalmatia, on the island of Veglia or in the province of Zara, shall be exempt from the payment of all school fees and surfees.

Both classes of students, however, shall be required to pay all contributions

The benefits referred to in the first two paragraphs of this article shall be suspended if the student is required to repeat the same year of study or does not receive the academic degree or diploma in the number of years prescribed for the attainment of said degree or diploma.

Article 157. — Students who transfer during the course of studies from one school or faculty to another in which the fees are higher, shall pay the difference in the fees for the years of study from which they are exempt in the faculty or school to which they have transferred.

If the above transfer takes place at the same time that the student transfers from one university to another, the above-mentioned difference shall be paid to the university or institute to which the student transfers.

Article 158. — The amount of fees to be paid to the office of the secretary of a university for obtaining transcripts and other records are fixed in the annexed Table I.

Paragraph 3. — Examinations

Article 159. — There are several types of examinations: subject examinations, examinations for a diploma of the two-year preparatory course in engineering, and examinations for a degree or a diploma.

Article 160. — In all faculties or schools a subject examination may

be taken in single subjects or in groups of subjects, according to the rules contained in the constitution of each university or higher institute.

Except as provided in the following paragraph, the constitution shall also determine for each faculty and school the number of subject examinations prescribed for a degree or diploma and the manner in which such examinations shall be conducted.

In order to be admitted to the degree examination in economic and commercial sciences, students must also have passed examinations in at least two of the four languages referred to in the last paragraph of Article 21.

Article 161. — Only those who have attended the two-year preparatory course of engineering and passed all the examinations referred to in Article 26 shall be admitted to the diploma examination.

The diploma examination shall consist of a written test in mathematics and physics, and of an oral and a graphic test sufficient to demonstrate the maturity of the candidates in scientific subjects and in drawing as well as his aptitude for the applied subjects.

The board of examiners for the diploma examination shall be composed of five members. Three of them shall be professors of the faculty of mathematical, physical and natural sciences, or of the two-year preparatory course of the Higher Institutes of Engineering of Milan and Turin, or of the two-year preparatory course at the Naval Academy of Leghorn, at the Artillery and Engineering Academy of Turin, or at the Aeronautical Academy of Caserta. The other two members shall be designated by the director of the higher institute of engineering of the same city or of the nearest city among the full professors of the applied course.

Article 162. — Except as provided in the following article the method of conducting the degree or diploma examinations shall be determined by the constitution of each university or higher institute.

Article 163. — Those who have completed the entire course of preparatory and applied studies in engineering and have passed the examination in each subject shall be admitted to the examination for a degree in engineering. This shall consist of the development of a specific project in a particular branch of engineering, drawn up in the last year of study, and of an oral discussion.

Article 164. — Examinations in each subject, for a diploma in the two-year preparatory engineering course, and for a degree and diploma, shall be given in two sessions: the first shall begin immediately after the annual closing of courses, and the second a month before the beginning of the new academic year.

No other examination period shall be permitted.

Paragraph 4. — Discipline

Article 165. — Disciplinary punishments, which shall be imposed on students according to the seriousness of the offense, shall be determined by the general university regulations

Article 166. — Rectors and directors, assisted by the deans of faculties and schools which constitute the university or institute, shall see to it that studies are conducted in an orderly and disciplined manner. They shall prevent and, when necessary, repress every attempt to interrupt the continuity and regularity of courses or to damage the realty and equipment belonging to the university or institute.

For these purposes, the administrative and subordinate clerks who are under the rector or director and are within the premises of the university or institute, shall constitute a body of internal police with powers and responsibilities which shall be determined by the general university regulations.

Chapter II. — Academic Degrees and State Examinations

Paragraph 1. — Academic Titles

Article 167. — Universities and higher institutes shall confer in the name of the King, such degrees and diplomas as shall be determined by the general university regulations for each faculty referred to in Article 20. They may also confer such other degrees and diplomas as may be established by the constitutions in accordance with the educational organization of the faculties, schools and courses.

The diploma in economic and commercial sciences shall indicate the complementary integrating course which the student has pursued and the examinations relating thereto which he has passed.

Article 168. — The degree in political science shall be equivalent to the degree in jurisprudence for the purpose of admission to competitive examinations for all government positions, with the exception of a career in the judiciary.

Article 169. — The degree *ad honorem* may be conferred only on persons who have earned great distinction through their works or publications in the subject of the faculty or school in which the degree is awarded.

The decision of the faculty or school council conferring a degree *ad honorem* shall be determined by two-thirds vote and shall be approved by the Minister of National Education.

The degree *ad honorem* shall entitle the holder to all the rights of ordinary degrees.

Article 170. — Academic degrees received abroad shall have no legal value in the Kingdom except by virtue of special legislation.

However, those who have received from foreign institutes of higher education one of the degrees included in an approved list, which shall be subject to modification by a decree of the Minister of National Education, may receive from one of the universities or higher institutes referred to in tables A and B the degree corresponding to that received abroad.

When the foreign academic degree is not included in the list referred to in the preceding paragraph, the Minister after a hearing before the competent academic authorities and the executive committee of the first section of the Higher Council of National Education may decide that the degree received abroad has the same value as the corresponding one conferred by universities and higher institutes of the Kingdom, or he may permit the applicant to take the examination for a degree or diploma, with total or partial exemption from examinations in the individual courses prescribed by the constitution of the university or higher institute for the corresponding course of studies.

Article 171. — Citizens living in annexed territories who are not of Italian nationality and who receive academic degrees abroad subsequent to the date of publication of the present Consolidated Law, shall not be entitled to avail themselves of the provisions of the preceding article.

Paragraph 2. — State Examinations

Article 172. — Degrees and diplomas conferred by universities and higher institutes shall have only the value of academic qualifications.

The qualification for the practice of a profession shall be conferred on the basis of State examinations to which the following students may be admitted:

- a) Students who have received the corresponding degree or diploma at a university or higher institute.
- b) Students who, in their course of studies for the said degree or diploma, have passed examinations in the individual subjects specified in the regulations.

Article 173. — Table L, hereto annexed, determines for what professions it is necessary to pass a State examination, and what degrees or diplomas are required for admission to these examinations.

The acceptability of other degrees or diplomas which universities or higher institutes may confer, according to Article 167, for admission to State qualifying examinations for the practice of each of the professions referred to in the above-mentioned table, shall be determined by royal decree.

No one shall be enrolled in the register for professional practice unless he shall first have passed the State examination.

Article 174. — The programs of the separate State examinations shall be determined by proper regulations enacted after a hearing before the Higher Council of National Education and on the proposal of appropriate commissions appointed by the Minister.

All matters concerning the place and conduct of the examinations shall be determined by the same regulations.

Article 175. — Boards of examiners shall be appointed each academic year by the Minister for each city and for each profession. The majority of the board shall be composed of full professors belonging to universities and higher institutes; the rest shall consist of, depending on the profession for which the examination is given, magistrates or officials of high rank, and of persons of recognized ability in the particular field of study or who have given proof of their expertness in professional practice.

Members of these boards shall receive, from the day preceding the beginning of the examinations to the day following the close of the period, a remuneration of 25 lire, if belonging to the State administration, or of 50 lire, if not connected therewith, for each day of actual participation in the examinations.

Besides the above remuneration, members of these boards who do not reside in the place where the examinations are held shall receive reimbursement for expenses incurred, in accordance with the Royal decree of November 11, 1923, No. 2395, and its subsequent amendments.

Those who are not connected with the Administration shall receive the remuneration established for employees of the sixth grade.

Except for the allowance for travelling expenses, all remunerations provided for by the present article shall be subject to a 12 per cent reduction, in accordance with the Royal decree-law of November 20, 1930, No. 1491.

Article 176. — The entrance fee to the State qualifying examinations in any branch of professional practice shall be fixed at 200 lire.

Besides the entrance fee, candidates for the qualifying examinations for the practice of a profession shall pay directly to the treasury of the university or higher institute at which they take the examinations, a contribution of 100 lire which shall be used to defray expenses incident to the examination, such as payment for office materials, instruments, etc.

Those who come up again for the examination after having once failed to pass shall again pay the fee and the contribution.

There shall be no exemption from the payment of the entrance fee for State examinations nor from the payment of the contributions.

However, those candidates who come under the provisions of Article 153 of the present Consolidated Law shall not be required to pay the entrance fee.

Article 177. — Each year the *Bollettino Ufficiale* of the Ministry

of National Education shall publish statistics on the results of State examinations and shall list the faculties and schools which have given the best results in the examination of their graduates.

Article 178. — The title of specialist in any branch of professional practice may be assumed only by those who have received the corresponding diploma, in accordance with the constitutions of the universities and higher institutes.

Those who violate the provisions of the preceding paragraph shall be removed from the professional register in which they are enrolled, and shall also be penalized in accordance with the provisions applicable to those guilty of the abuse of professional practice.

The provisions of the present article shall not apply to full professors of universities nor to private docents of subjects or parts of subjects referring to the separate specialties.

Article 179. — Admission to the practice of the professions of lawyer, legal procurator, and notary shall be governed by special regulations.

Admission to the practice of the profession of teacher of subjects in the royal secondary schools shall also be governed by special regulations. For the practice of this profession a special register shall be formed according to rules established by the regulations. No one shall be enrolled in this register if he has not at least passed the competitive examinations for professorships in the above-mentioned institutes. Such examinations shall have the same value as State examinations.

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Chapter III. — University Assistance

Paragraph 1. — Grants-in aid and Scholarships

Article 185. — At each university and higher institute a school fund shall be established for the purpose of furnishing to needy and deserving students the means to pay in part or in full the fees, surfees and contributions.

Each School Fund shall be entitled to:

- a) ten per cent of the matriculation and registration fees and of all contributions.
- b) Gifts from chartered associations or from private individuals, as well as moneys which the university or institute may contribute from its own budget.

The School Fund shall be administered by a board of directors and shall have a budget and an administration distinct from those of the university or institute.

Grants-in-aid shall be awarded by the board of directors from whose decisions there shall be no appeal.

A special regulation shall determine for each university or institute the rules concerning the composition of the board of directors, which must always include two students chosen by the rector or director, and the administration and functioning of the School Fund.

This regulation shall be issued by a decree of the rector or director after a hearing before the Academic Senate and the Administrative Council. If necessary, it shall be modified by a decree of the rector or director after a hearing before the board of directors of the School Fund and the Administrative Council.

Regulations for the School Fund and any subsequent modifications shall be published in the *Bollettino Ufficiale* of the Ministry of National Education.

The School Funds may turn over each year any surplus they may have to the credit of the University Association (*Opera Universitaria*) referred to in Article 189, or to the credit of the budget of the university or higher institute where they were founded as a total or partial reimbursement of the amount of uncollected school fees, in accordance with the law of June 14, 1928, No. 1312.

Article 186. — The Minister of National Education is authorized to award grants-in-aid to Italians and foreigners to pursue courses or complete their studies in Italian or foreign universities, higher institutes, and institutes of art. The money required for this purpose shall be appropriated annually in the budget of the Ministry of National Education.

The offices of the treasurers of institutes are authorized to open credit accounts in favor of the bursars of the universities, higher institutes and institutes of art for the payment of grants-in-aid to foreigners who shall pursue courses or complete their studies at Italian universities, higher institutes, or institutes of art.

Article 187. — To provide scholarships for graduate students either at Italian or foreign universities or higher institutes, a fund shall be appropriated in the budget of the Ministry of National Education. These scholarships shall be awarded each year on a competitive basis.

The competitions referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be judged, in the case of studies in mathematical, physical, natural and biological sciences, by commissions chosen from among the members of the National Research Council; in the case of studies in philosophy, history, and philology, by commissions chosen on the designation of the executive committee of the first section of the Higher Council of National Education.

Article 188. — At the Royal University of Rome there shall be established five annual scholarships, each amounting to 8,000 lire, to be awarded on a competitive basis to students registered in the faculty of political science according to rules to be fixed by the council of the same faculty.

Paragraph 2. — Associations (Opere) and Foundations

Article 189. — An Association shall be established at each university and institute.

The Association shall have a legal personality. They shall be administered by a board of directors presided over by the rector or director of the university or higher institute. The general university regulations shall fix the rules for the composition of the board of directors and for the activities of the Association.

It shall be the duty of each Association to promote, carry out, and coordinate the various forms of material, moral and school assistance offered to students in the manner it considers most fitting. In each case, it shall organize a medical office to provide gratuitously for the preventive and periodic examination of the health of the university students, for all prophylactic measures, and for the treatment of sick students in modest financial circumstances.

In addition, each Association shall have special regulations containing rules concerning its work. Such regulations shall be issued and, if necessary, modified by a decree of the rector or director after a hearing before the board of directors referred to in the second paragraph of this article. The regulation and its later modifications shall be published in the *Bollettino Ufficiale* of the Ministry of National Education.

Article 190. — All those who obtain the qualification for the practice of a profession shall be required to pay a special fee for the benefit of the Associations of universities and higher institutes.

The amount of the fee shall be 250 lire. Evidence that the fee has been paid must be shown at the time the qualifying certificate is granted or, in the case of professions in which no qualifying certificate is issued, at the time of enrolling in the professional register.

The Association of each university or institute shall receive the total amount of the aforesaid fee, paid by contributors who hold an academic degree conferred by the same university or institute. This is in addition to the gifts that may be received from chartered associations and private individuals, and the moneys appropriated by the university administration from its budget, or the moneys received from the School Fund.

Graduates who donate to the Association of the university or institute from which they received their degree or diploma, the sum of not less than 1000 lire shall receive from the rector or director the title of patron of the Association of the particular university or institute. A special contribution of 25 lire shall also be established for sports and welfare services, which contribution all students of universities and higher institutes shall be required to pay each year at the time of their registration.

Article 191. — Associations and foundations which have as their object the promotion of higher education and of the assistance services in their various forms, for students of universities and institutes of higher

education, shall be placed under the supervision of the Minister of National Education.

Article 192. — The Government of the King shall have the power to order the grouping of two or more foundations referred to in the preceding paragraph, or their fusion with the Association of a university or institute:

- a) when the institutions concerned have not a net income sufficient to attain the ends in view;
- b) when there is no way of forming the administration or the representation of the institution for want of rules at the time of its foundation;
- c) when the grouping or fusion makes it probable that the work of administration will become more simple and economical, and more efficient in attaining the ends in view.

The Government may also change the constitutions, regulations, and foundation deeds of the institutions referred to in the preceding article for the purpose of improving their work; and to modify their ends when these do not correspond to public needs or when these ends cannot be attained. In all cases the new ends should deviate as little as possible from the intention of the founder.

For the grouping, fusion, modifications of statutory regulations and changing of ends, the Minister must in each instance hear the administrators and patrons of the chartered associations, the municipalities, and the provinces concerned; if the scope of the institution is local, the minister shall consult directly or indirectly with the university or institute concerned.

The action taken shall be embodied in a royal decree and issued in agreement with the opinion of the State Council.

Article 193. — There shall be organized at the Ministry of National Education a Central Committee for the university associations referred to in Article 189 of the present Consolidated Law.

The Central Committee shall be the moving and coordinating body of the activities of the associations of university assistance.

a) It shall promote the coordination of the various forms of assistance offered through the initiative of the individual universities or higher institutes, and shall make appropriate suggestions for the collection of the necessary funds.

b) It shall decide on the expenditure of funds referred to in the next article.

c) It shall support the various activities of the University Fascist Group with regard to culture, political education, and sports of university students.

d) It shall favor the coming of foreign students to the universities

and institutes of higher education of the Kingdom, and shall supervise all efforts seeking to increase the number of exchanges between Italian and foreign students.

Article 194. — In order to carry out its work, the Central Committee shall avail itself of:

- a) the income from the contribution referred to in the last paragraph of Article 190 of the present Consolidated Law;
- b) an annual contribution from the Ministry of Corporations;
- c) an annual contribution from the National Fascist Party;
- d) any other incomes.

The funds referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be turned over each year to the income account of the treasury. The corresponding sum shall be entered in the estimated budget of the Ministry of National Education.

Article 195. — The Central Committee shall be presided over by the Minister of National Education and shall be composed as follows:

- 1) the Secretary of the National Fascist Party who shall have the duties of Vice-president;
- 2) the Administrative Secretary of the National Fascist Party;
- 3) the Assistant Secretary of the University Fascist Groups;
- 4) a representative of the University Fascist Militia, designated by the general executive department of the Militia;
- 5) the General Director of Higher Education;
- 6) a university rector and the director of an institute of higher education, both designated by the Minister of National Education;
- 7) two full professors of universities and institutes of higher education, also designated by the Minister of National Education;
- 8) a representative of the Minister of Finance, and one from the Minister of Corporations.

The members referred to under numbers 4, 6, 7, 8, shall hold office for two years and may be reappointed.

The duties of the secretary shall be performed by an official of the Ministry of National Education.

The Committee shall be constituted by a royal decree, on the proposal of the Minister of National Education.

The Committee shall hold regular meetings twice a year. It may be convened for a special meeting at any time the president may deem it necessary, or upon the request of the Secretary of the Party or of three members of the Committee itself.

The duties of the members of the Committee shall be performed gratuitously.

Article 196. — The President, with the advice of the Vice-President, shall appoint from among the members of the Central Committee an Executive Committee composed of three members, and shall designate one of them as chairman.

Members of the Executive Committee shall hold office for two years and may be reappointed.

It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to provide for the execution of the decisions of the Committee, and to adopt emergency measures which shall be subject to the ratification of the Central Committee.

Article 197. — In cities which are the seats of several universities and/or higher institutes a Committee of University Associations shall be organized presided over by the rector of the royal university, or by the oldest of the directors of the royal higher institutes should there be no royal university at that place.

The Committee shall provide for the coordination of the individual associations. It shall be composed of the Federal Secretary of the National Fascist Party, or one of his delegates, a representative from each of the associations, a representative of the University Militia, and a representative of the University Fascist Group.

The duties of the members of the Committee shall be performed gratuitously.

Section IV. — Private Universities and Higher Institutes

Article 198. — Every private university and higher institute whose organization conforms to the regulations of the present Consolidated Law shall belong to the category referred to in Article 1, number 2).

Article 199. — Except as hereinafter provided, the regulations contained under Division I, Sections I, II, and III shall be applied to private universities and higher institutes.

Article 200. — The chartered association or associations which promote the establishment of a private university or higher institute shall be required to submit to the Minister the proposed constitutions, accompanied by an appropriate report and financial plan.

The Minister shall ascertain whether the project, in its entirety, is in conformity with the general interest of studies and higher education, and in particular whether the financial plan is adequate for the attainment of the ends in view. The necessary steps shall then be taken by following the regulations set out in Article 17, which shall also apply to any subsequent modifications of the constitution. However, the measures referred to under letters d) and e) of the following article shall be subject to the approval of the Minister of National Education, acting with the Minister of Finance.

Article 201. — The constitution shall determine:

a) The faculties, schools, courses, and seminars which compose the private university or higher institute.

b) The subjects, their order, the manner in which they are to be taught, the minimum number of subjects required for a degree or diploma, and the regulations concerning the recognition of the legal value of private courses, as provided in the last paragraph of Article 117.

c) The regulations concerning the appointment of rectors and directors and those concerning the composition and renewal of the administrative councils; temporary regulations concerning the composition of the administrative council and the appointment of directors, rectors, and deans shall take care of the initial work of the universities and institutes. Chartered associations and private individuals who contribute to the maintenance of the university or institute shall be represented on the council, and in each case there shall be a government representative chosen by the Minister of National Education.

d) The list of full-time professors for each faculty or school. The number of professorships must be such as to guarantee the efficient functioning of the faculty and school.

e) The schedules of the salaries and the leaves of absence of full professors and of the personnel of all categories in the service of the university or institute. The salary schedule of full professors shall not, however, be less than that fixed in Table E hereto annexed.

f) The legal status of all categories of personnel in the service of the university or institute, excluding full professors.

g) The total of school fees and surfees which shall not be less than that fixed by Table H. The surfees shall be utilized in accordance with the ends stated in the second paragraph of Article 52 and in the manner indicated therein.

h) The number and the manner of conducting examinations in individual subjects, and the manner of conducting degree or diploma examinations.

i) The degrees and diplomas to be conferred by each faculty or school.

The constitution shall also contain any other regulation concerning the organization and work of the university or institute.

Article 202. — The deans shall be appointed by the rector or director.

The faculty or school council shall be composed of all the official professors connected with the particular faculty or school.

Article 203. — Estimated budgets and final accounts of private universities and higher institutes shall be transmitted to the Minister of National Education.

The provisions of Article 56 and 59, second paragraph, of the present

Consolidated Law shall not be applied to private universities and higher institutes.

Article 204. — Expenditures for personnel of all categories shall be charged to the budget of the university or institute.

For the expenditures of the examining commissions referred to in Articles 74 and 78, the provisions of the same articles concerning universities and institutes included in Table B shall be applied.

Article 205. — The provisions referred to in Article 83 shall not apply to professors of private universities and higher institutes.

Article 206. — The choice of faculties and schools of private universities and higher institutes concerning the appointment of one of the candidates proposed by the board of examiners, in accordance with Article 73, shall be transmitted to the Minister who, after having verified the regularity of the procedure, shall forward his approval to the university or institute.

The provisions referred to in the second paragraph of Article 76 shall not apply to private universities and higher institutes.

Article 207. — Full professors belonging to universities or institutes referred to in tables A and B, or to private universities and higher institutes, may with their consent be transferred to fill vacancies in professorships.

The opinion of the Higher Council, as prescribed by Articles 93 and 94, shall be sought by the Minister at the request of the university or institute.

Article 208. — In order to fill professional positions within the limits of the full-time staffs of newly established private universities or higher institutes, the Minister, at the time of their legal recognition, and upon request and with the approval of the chartered association or associations promoting the said institute or university, may transfer to them professors of any university or higher institute who shall teach their own or any other subject.

If the positions remain vacant, they shall be filled in accordance with the regulations established for royal universities and royal higher institutes. The powers exercised by the faculty or school councils shall be given to the above-mentioned chartered association or associations.

The request and proposals referred to in the preceding paragraphs may be presented as soon as the proposed constitution has been submitted to the Minister.

Article 209. — The Minister of National Education may request that professors of private universities and higher institutes be placed at the disposal of the Minister of Foreign Affairs, for the purposes set out in Article 96.

When the institutes concerned agree with the proposal, the salary of

substitutes shall be paid from the budget of the Ministry of National Education.

Article 210. — Censure of full professors shall be made in writing by the rector or director, after hearing the defense of the person concerned.

Rectors or directors shall be censured exclusively by the Minister.

The initiative in disciplinary proceedings referred to in Article 89 may also be taken by the Minister. Any steps taken shall be adopted by a ministerial decree.

The provisions of the preceding paragraph shall apply to disciplinary proceedings against private docents in the cases covered by Article 126, last paragraph.

Article 211. — All provisions concerning the legal status, salaries and leaves of absence of the personnel of every category shall be approved by the administrative council and executed by the president thereof, except as provided in the second, third, and fourth paragraphs of the preceding article.

Article 212. — Private universities and higher institutes, or any of their faculties or schools, may be eliminated by royal decree whenever their financial resources or their educational equipment is found insufficient, or whenever the general interests of education or of the territorial distribution of institutes of higher education shall so require.

Such universities and institutes may also be eliminated when their teaching is not substantially in accordance with the institutions and principles governing the social order of the State.

A royal decree eliminating a university or higher institute shall contain the necessary provisions regarding the full-time personnel and the students.

Any provisions concerning the full-time personnel shall be promulgated with the approval of the Minister of Finance.

Omissis

Paragraph 6. — Royal University for Foreigners in Perugia

Article 258. — The Royal University of Perugia shall be an autonomous body, which shall have as its object the organization and maintenance of special courses in Italian literature and culture for foreigners.

A special agreement between the State, the province and the municipality shall establish the regulations for the work of this university. It shall provide for a contribution of 91,000 lire per year to be made by the State.

The constitution of this university shall be approved by royal decree on the proposal of the Minister of National Education.

Omissis

APPENDIX G

THE NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL

The National Research Council is a special institute established by the Royal decree of November 10, 1923, No. 2895, by the Head of the Government for the purpose of "coordinating and systematizing scientific research which is today so intimately bound with the economic and technical progress of the country."

The rapid development of science and art in almost every modern state has revealed the necessity of creating institutions for pure scientific research alongside universities and institutes of higher learning. In Italy these institutions are controlled by the State and are placed in direct contact with the forces related to the production of wealth. Institutions of this nature, free from teaching duties, already exist in America, Germany, England and Belgium.

In Italy the National Research Council aims to satisfy these needs. Its work is governed by the following regulations:

- a) The Royal decree of November 18, 1923, No. 2895, establishing it as a chartered association.
- b) The Royal decree of March 31, 1927, No. 638, modifying its organization.
- c) The Royal decree of October 23, 1927, No. 2015, fixing the relation between the National Council and the Minister of Instruction (now Education).
- d) The Royal decree of June 21, 1928, No. 1840, approving the regulation.
- e) The Royal decree law of May 23, 1932, No. 598, modifying its organization and activities.

The National Research Council possesses a legal personality, financial resources, and an autonomous administration. Depending on scientific and technical needs, National Committees are appointed by the Head of the Government, with the approval of the Minister of National Education and on the proposal of the board of directors. The members of the National Committees are a part of the Council.

The Council is composed of the presidents and secretaries of the National Committees, and is governed by a board of directors appointed by

royal decree, on the proposal of the Head of the Government in agreement with the Minister of National Education.

The board of directors consists of seven members: a president, four vice-presidents, a general secretary and an administrator. The Director General of Higher Education is also a member of the board of directors.

Each National Committee is composed of several members, the number to be fixed by the President of the National Council, after consulting with the board of directors, and with the approval of the Head of the Government in agreement with the Minister of National Education. Committees have been appointed for the following subjects: agriculture, astronomy, biology, chemistry, physics, geodesy and geophysics, geography, geology, engineering, mathematics, medicine, and radiotelegraphy.

Each Committee is governed by a president and a secretary, and if the Committee is subdivided, by one or more vice-presidents and by one or more assistant secretaries, according to the number of divisions.

The National Council has the following aims:

a) To coordinate national activities in the various branches of science and its applications in the interest of general economic conditions of the country. For this purpose it keeps itself in contact with the different chartered associations on all questions pertaining to scientific research in its practical applications.

b) To propose to the government, with the above-mentioned aims in view, the advisability of establishing and transforming scientific laboratories for general and special research.

c) To furnish at the request of the interested state organizations information and advice on subjects of mutual interest.

d) To prepare and publish the Italian scientific and technical bibliography. In order to compile this bibliography all publishers, within a month of the printing, are required to send to the National Council all the publications of a scientific and technical nature.

e) To propose to the interested associations the granting of national and foreign scholarships and fellowships, in order to foster in Italy the spirit of scientific research.

In accordance with Article 1 of the Royal decree law of October 23, 1927, No. 2105, the National Research Council acts in an advisory capacity for the Minister of National Education on all matters pertaining to the development and progress of scientific and technical activities. In order to carry out this phase of its work, the National Council has the power to order visits to institutes, laboratories and establishments where scientific research is being conducted. In each case the necessary authorization must be obtained from the competent Minister.

In addition to the above, two new very important activities are entrusted to the National Research Council by the law of May 23, 1932, No. 598.

The first is to express its own opinion on technical and scientific questions whenever it is sought by state or other public administrations. The expression of such opinion on technical and scientific matters is obligatory. The second function relates to the technical and scientific control of national products whenever commissioned by public or private administrations. This control will be greatly extended, because its aim is to guarantee the fine quality of Italian products, and thus to assure their market in Italy and abroad.

The Council issues the following publications:

- 1) Lists of and information on Italian scientific institutes and laboratories (a new edition every two years).
- 2) Lists of and information on Italian cultural institutions and associations (a new edition every two years).
- 3) Lists of Italian scientific and technical periodicals (a new edition every two years).
- 4) Italian scientific bibliography.
- 5) A monthly review (since July, 1929).

The National Committees also issue publications, some periodically, others at irregular intervals.

The Council has a library of Italian periodicals, about 2,000 in number, and a library of about 400 technical foreign reviews.

The Council also maintains scientific technical archives of documentation, located at Via Cernaia 12, Milan.

*Table A — Royal Universities and Higher Institutes
Supported by the State*

No.	R. Univers. & Higher Institutes	Loca- tion	Pro- fessors- ships	Faculties	State Contribution
1	Royal University	Bologna	13	Law	
			15	Letters & Philosophy	2,011,000
			17	Medicine & Surgery	
			14	Mathematics Physical & Natural Sciences	140,100 ²
			1	Pharmacy	
			<hr/> 60		—284,880*
2	Royal University	Cagliari	9	Law	
			9	Letters & Philosophy	1,294,000 ¹⁰
			15	Medicine & Surgery	
			10	Mathematics, Physical & Natural Sciences	47,780 ²
			1	Pharmacy	
			<hr/> 44		—182,460*
3	Royal University	Genoa	13	Law	
			11	Letters & Philosophy	1,607,000
			17	Medicine & Surgery	
			13	Mathematics, Physical & Natural Sciences	102,200 ²
			1		
			<hr/> 55	Pharmacy	—227,660*
4	Royal University	Naples	16	Law	
			15	Letters & Philosophy	
			24	Medicine & Surgery	2,818,000
			19	Mathematics, Physics & Natural Sciences	205,300 ²
			1	Pharmacy	
			<hr/> 75		—399,210*

No.	R. Univers. & Higher Institutes	Loca- tion	Pro- fessor- ships	Faculties	State Contribution
5	Royal University	Padua	13	Law	
			14	Letters & Philosophy	
			17	Medicine & Surgery	1,692,000
			14	Mathematics, Physics & Natural Sciences	140,100 ²
			1	Pharmacy	
			—	Schol of Statistics ²⁰	
			<hr/>		
			59		—239,690*
6	Royal University	Palermo	13	Law	
			14	Letters & Philosophy	
			16	Medicine & Surgery	1,202,000 ⁵
			14	Mathematics, Physics & Natural Sciences	102,200 ²
			1	Pharmacy	
			<hr/>		
			58		—170,280*
7	Royal University	Pavia	12	Law	
			3	Political Sciences ²¹	1,560,000
			11	Letters & Philosophy	
			16	Medicine & Surgery	102,200 ²
			12	Mathematics, Physics & Natural Sciences	
			1	Pharmacy	
			<hr/>		
			55		—221,000*
8	Royal University	Pisa	13	Law	
			14	Letters & Philosophy	1,627,000 ⁶
			16	Medicine & Surgery	
			14	Mathematics, Physics & Natural Sciences	84,400 ²
			1	Pharmacy	
			<hr/>		
			58		—231,340*

No.	R. Univers. & Higher Institutes	Loca- tion	Pro- fessor- ships	Faculties	State Contribution
9	Royal University	Rome	18	Law	
			7	Political Sciences ¹³	
			33	Letters & Philosophy	5,179,000 ⁶
			26	Medicine & Surgery	238,300 ²
			21	Mathematics, Physics & Natural Sciences	325,000 ⁷
			1	Pharmacy	
			2	School of Statistics ¹⁴	20,000 ⁸
					100,000 ⁹
			<hr/>		
			108		—781,200*
10	Royal University	Turin	14	Law	
			17	Letters & Philosophy	
			17	Medicine & Surgery	2,190,000 ¹⁰
			14	Mathematics, Physics & Natural Sciences	107,000 ²
			1	Pharmacy	
			<hr/>		
			63		—309,390*
11	R. H. Institute of Engineering	Bologna	11	Engineering	430,000 ⁶
					52,100 ²
					—61,720*
12	R. H. Institute of Engineering	Naples	17	Engineering	380,000
					32,000 ²
					—53,840*
13	R. H. Institute of Engineering	Padua	11	Engineering	691,000
					52,100 ²
					—97,890*
14	R. H. Institute of Engineering	Palermo	11	Engineering	462,000
					42,600 ²
					—65,460*
15	R. H. Institute of Engineering	Pisa	9	Engineering	441,000 ¹⁰
					27,200 ²
					—61,630*

No.	R. Univers. & Higher Institutes	Loca- tion	Pro- fessor- ships	Faculties	State Contribution
16	R. H. Institute of Engineering	Rome	16	Engineering	216,000
			3	School Mining Eng. ¹⁷	160,000 ¹¹
			5	School Aeronautical ¹⁸	31,900 ²
				Engineering	20,000 ¹⁵
					184,000 ¹⁶
					—40,600*
17	R. H. Institute of Architecture	Rome	7	Architecture	250,000 ¹²
					36,700 ²
					—35,420*
18	R. H. Institute of Agriculture	Bologna	7	Agriculture	53,000
					86,890 ¹
					42,600 ²
					—300*
19	R. H. Institute of Agriculture	Milan	12	Agriculture	90,000
					332,420 ¹
					46,000 ³
					42,600 ²
					—500*
20	R. H. Institute of Agriculture	Perugia	12	Agriculture	30,500
					276,960 ¹
					42,600 ²
					—200*
21	R. H. Institute of Agriculture	Pisa	6	Agriculture	53,000
					119,415 ¹
					30,000 ³
					42,600 ²
					—300*
22	R. H. Institute of Agriculture	Portici	13	Agriculture	160,000
					419,865 ¹
					31,900 ²
					—800*

No.	R. Univers. & Higher Institutes	Loca- tion	Pro- fessor- ships	Faculties	State Contribution
23	R. H. Institute of Agriculture & Forestry	Florence	13	Agriculture & Forestry ¹⁹	215,000 205,520 ¹ 25,000 ³ 42,600 ² —1,100*
24	R. H. Institute of Veterinary Medicine	Bologna	6	Veterinary	113,000 228,055 ¹ 33,100 ² —600*
25	R. H. Institute of Veterinary Medicine	Messina	3	Veterinary	100,00 47,010 ¹ 12,500 ³ 28,500 ² —500*
26	R. H. Institute of Veterinary Medicine	Milan	6	Veterinary	142,000 273,085 ¹ 33,100 ² —800*
27	R. H. Institute of Veterinary Medicine	Naples	5	Veterinary	63,000 329,380 ¹ 33,100 ² —400*
28	R. H. Institute of Veterinary Medicine	Parma	3	Veterinary	45,000 124,050 ¹ 33,100 ² —300*

No.	R. Univers. & Higher Institutes	Loca- tion	Pro- fessor- ships	Faculties	State Contribution
29	R. H. Institute of Veterinary Medicine	Pisa	4	Veterinary	37,000 191,540 ¹ 33,100 ² —200*
30	R. H. Institute of Veterinary Medicine	Sassari	2	Veterinary	60,000 25,170 ¹ 30,000 ³ 28,500 ² —300*
31	R. H. Institute of Veterinary Medicine	Turin	6	Veterinary	85,000 273,920 ¹ 22,350 ³ 33,100 ² —500*

* Total reduction applied by the budget laws, in accordance with the general financial measures.

1 Increase according to Article 30 of the Royal Decree Law of August 28, 1931, No. 1227, and of law of June 16, 1932, No. 812.

2 Increase according to the law of June 8, 1933, No. 629 (table II).

3 Increase according to Articles 2 and 3 of the Consolidated Law on local finance, approved by the Royal Decree of September 14, 1931, No. 1175.

4 In the original the figures entered in this column are listed under table D.

5 Including 40,000 lire, according to the law of July 13, 1905, No. 384.

6 From the contributions fixed by the Royal Decree of November 16, 1924, 6,000 lire have been deducted, according to Article 2 of the Royal Decree of November 13, 1931, No. 1848.

7 For the maintenance of the Faculty of Political Science (Article 6 of the Royal Decree Law of March 27, 1924, No. 527, and Article 5 of the Royal Decree Law of December 27, 1925, No. 2382).

- 8 For the maintenance of the School of Statistics (Article 4 of the Royal Decree Law of November 17, 1927, No. 2372).
9. For the maintenance of the Clinic for Tropical Diseases. Of this sum, 20,000 lire are from the Ministry of the Interior, 10,000 lire from the Ministry of War, 50,000 lire from the Ministry of the Navy, 20,000 lire from the Ministry of Aeronautics (Article 4 of the Royal Decree Law of December 18, 1930, No. 1887).
- 10 To the contribution fixed by the Royal Decree of November 16, 1924, 6,000 lire have been added, in accordance with Article 2 of the Royal Decree of November 13, 1931, No. 1848.
- 11 Increase according to Article 6 of the Royal Decree Law of March 23, 1924, No. 507, for support of the School of Mining Engineering.
- 12 To the contribution fixed by the Royal Decree of November 16, 1924, 50,000 lire have been added, according to Article 27 of the Royal Decree Law of May 22, 1924, No. 744.
- 13 Established by virtue of Article 35 of the Royal Decree Law of September 4, 1925, No. 1604. In addition to courses leading toward the degree in political science, the Faculty offers graduate courses for Government employees. (Article 2, last paragraph of the Royal Decree Law of March 27, 1924, No. 527).
- 14 Established by virtue of Article 2 of the Royal Decree Law of November 17, 1927, No. 2372.
- 15 By the Ministry of Communications for the teaching of transmission and for special telegraphic and telephonic measures (Article 3 of the Royal Decree Law of October 23, 1930, No. 1421).
- 16 By the Ministry of Aeronautics for the operation of the School of Aeronautical Engineering (Law of January 18, 1932, No. 110).
- 17 Established by virtue of the Royal Decree Law of March 23, 1924, No. 507. In addition to courses leading toward the degree in mining engineering, the school offers graduate courses for engineers of the Royal Mining Corps, arranged in accordance with the special requirements of the administrations. (Article 2 of the Royal Decree Law of March 23, 1924, No. 507).
- 18 Established by Article 1 of the Royal Decree Law of August 20, 1926, No. 1760.
- 19 The Faculty has an Experimental Station, established by the law of April 3, 1921, No. 742 (Article 2 of the Royal Decree Law of November 6, 1924, No. 1851).
- 20 Established by virtue of Article 3 of the Royal Decree Law of November 17, 1927, No. 2372.
- 21 Established by virtue of Article 1 of the Royal Decree Law of January 7, 1926, No. 181.

*Full-Time Professorships in Royal Higher Normal Institutes
and Astronomical Observatories*

Institute	Location	Full-time Professorships
Royal Higher Normal Institute	Florence	7 ¹
Royal Higher Normal Institute	Messina	6
Royal Higher Normal Institute	Rome	8 ¹
Royal Astronomical Observatories	—	4
Royal Observatory of Vesuvius	Naples	1

¹Two professorships are reserved exclusively for the teaching of foreign modern languages and literature (Article 38 of the Royal decree law of September 4, 1925, No. 1604).

Recapitulation

	Full-time Professorships
Royal Universities	635
Royal Higher Institutes of Engineering	83
Royal Higher Institute of Architecture of Rome	7
Royal Higher Institutes of Agriculture	63
Royal Higher Institutes of Veterinary Medicine	35
Royal Higher Normal Institutes	21
Royal Astronomical and Vesuvius Observatories	5
Royal Higher Institutes of Economic and Commercial Sciences	103

*Table B — Royal Universities and Higher Institutes Supported by
Agreements between the State and Chartered Associations
(Articles 1 and 3)*

Royal Universities and Royal Higher Institutes	Location	Professorships	State Contribution ¹
Royal University	Bari	30	1,772,824 ² —254,280*
Royal University	Catania	55	1,497,823 ³ —215,330*
Royal University	Florence	70	2,377,824 ² 30,000 ⁴ —354,250*
Royal University	Macerata	10	129,900 ⁵ —21,250*

Royal Universities and Royal Higher Institutes	Location	Professorships	State Contribution ¹
Royal University	Messina	40	999,900 ⁶ —144,500*
Royal University	Milan	65	273,160 ⁷ —42,500*
Royal University	Modena	36	979,900 ⁵ —141,660*
Royal University	Parma	34	979,900 ⁵ —141,660*
Royal University	Perugia	37	739,900 ⁸ —107,670*
Royal University	Sassari	31	879,900 ⁵ —127,500*
Royal University	Siena	33	979,900 ⁵ —141,660*
Royal Higher Institute of Engineering	Genoa	10	150,000 —21,250*
Royal Higher Institute of Engineering	Milan	23	379,900 ⁸ —56,670*
Royal Higher Institute of Engineering	Turin	18	1,329,900 ⁸ —191,250*
Royal Higher Institute of Industrial Chemistry	Bologna	2	78,100 —11,070*
Royal Higher Institute of Architecture	Florence	3	28,800 ⁹ 120,700 27,200 ¹⁰ —2,325*
Royal Higher Institute of Architecture	Naples	3	28,800 71,000 ⁹ 27,200 ¹⁰ —2,325*
Royal Higher Institute of Architecture	Turin	3	78,250 86,500 ⁹ 27,200 ¹⁰ —6,330*

Royal Universities and Royal Higher Institutes	Location	Professorships	State Contribution ¹
Royal Higher Institute of Architecture	Venice	3	125,250 55,700 ⁹ 27,200 ¹⁰ —10,120*
Royal Higher Institute of Veterinary Medicine	Perugia	12	40,000 ¹¹ 290,000 ¹² —1,700*
Royal Higher Institute of Economic & Commercial Sciences	Bari	11	284,170 ⁸ 104,730 ⁹ —9,000*
Royal Higher Institute of Economic & Commercial Sciences	Catania	11	111,331 ⁸ 143,260 ⁹ —3,831*
Royal Higher Institute of Economic & Commercial Sciences	Florence	8	29,900 ⁸ 75,000 ⁹ —1,360*
Royal Higher Institute of Economic & Commercial Sciences	Genoa	11	297,196 ⁸ 126,360 ⁹ —9,406*
Royal Higher Institute of Economic & Commercial Sciences	Naples	11	246,262 ⁸ 172,700 ⁹ —8,862*
Royal Higher Institute of Economic & Commercial Sciences	Rome	15	452,007 ⁸ —14,457*
Royal Higher Institute of Economic & Commercial Sciences	Turin	9	304,218 ⁸ 82,130 ⁹ —9,618*
Royal University of Economic and Com- mercial Sciences	Triest	13	452,152 ⁸ 91,045 ⁹ —13,972*
Royal University of Economic and Com- mercial Sciences	Venice	14	377,958 ⁸ 161,130 ⁹ —11,888*

(In its official acts the University is authorized to add to its title, "Fondatore Pasquale Revoltella," Royal decree, August 8, 1924, No. 1338).

(To the Faculty of Economic and Commercial Sciences of the Institute the following special sections have been added: consular section; teachers' section in economics and law; teachers' section in bookkeeping and accounting; teachers' section in foreign languages (Article 1, Royal decree of August 28, 1924, No. 1618).

- * Total reduction applied by the budget laws, in accordance with the general financial measures.
- (1) The contributions for the higher institutes of architecture and of economic and commercial sciences are taken from the respective acts of their foundation and subsequent amendments.
- (2) From the contribution fixed by Article 1 of the Royal Decree Law of December 30, 1926, No. 2374, 22,176 lire are deducted in accordance with the law of June 8, 1933, No. 629 (table III).
- (3) Including the 20,000 lire in accordance with the law of July 13, 1905, No. 384, and the deduction of 22,176 lire, in accordance with the law of June 8, 1933, No. 629 (table III).
- (4) For the maintenance of the School of Librarians and Archivists (Royal Decree Law of October 29, 1925, No. 1968).
- (5) 20,000 lire have been deducted in accordance with the law of June 8, 1933 No. 629 (table II).
- (6) Including 20,000 lire in accordance with the law of July 13, 1905, No. 384, and the deduction of 20,000 lire in accordance with the law of June 8, 1933, No. 629 (Table III).
- (7) 26,840 lire have ben deducted in accordance with the law of June 8, 1933, No. 629 (Table III).
- (8) From the contribution fixed by Article 1 of the Royal Decree Law of December 30, 1926, No. 2375, 20,100 lire have been deducted in accordance with the law of June 8, 1933, No. 629 (Table III).
- (9) Increase according to Articles 2 and 3 of the Consolidated Law on local finance, approved by Royal Decree of September 14, 1931, No. 1175.
- (10) Increase according to the law of June 8, 1933, No. 629 (Table II).
- (11) Article 4 of the Royal Decree Law of October 29, 1925, No. 1965, and the Royal Decree of November 11, 1927, No. 2241.
- (12) Increase according to Article 24 of the Royal Decree Law of October 27, 1927, No. 2135.

Table C—Indemnity for Rectors of Royal Universities and Directors of Royal Higher Institutes (Article 7)

	Yearly Lire
Rectors of Royal Universities	3,000
Rectors and Directors of Royal Higher Institutes of Economic and Commercial Sciences	3,000
Directors of other higher institutes	2,500
Note: The above indemnities are subject to the reduction of 12 per cent in accordance with the Royal decree law of November 20, 1930, No. 1491.	

*Table E—Minimum Compensation for Full-Time Professors
in Royal Universities and Higher Institutes Referred
to in Table B and in Private Universities and
Institutes (Articles 99 and 201)*

	Lire
<i>a) Salaries, and periodical increases in salaries</i>	
Initial salary	12,000
Salary upon appointment as full-time professor	14,000
Salary at end of fifth year of service as full professor	15,500
Salary at end of tenth year of service as full professor	17,000
Salary at end of fifteenth year of service as full professor	18,500
<i>b) Academic indemnities:</i>	
Extraordinary professors	4,000
Full-time professors	6,000
Private universities and higher institutes are required to pay the full professors the salaries in accordance with letter b).	

*Table F: Fees for Conferring the Right to Practice
as Private Docent (Article 124)*

Fee for conferring the title of private docent	500 lire
Fee for the practice of private docentship	250 lire

*Table H Fees and Surfees for Universities and Higher Institutes
in Tables A and B (Article 152)*

Faculty	Matriculation Fee	Yearly Tuition fee
Law	300	750
Political Science	300	750
Economic and Commercial Sciences	300	450
Letters and Philosophy	300	400
Medicine and Surgery	300	800
Veterinary Medicine	300	400
Pharmacy		
a) Pharmaceutical course	300	650
b) Chemistry and pharmacy course	300	550
Mathematical, Physical and Natural Sciences	300	400
Engineering:		
a) Preparatory two-year course	300	700
b) three-year applied course	225	900
Architecture	300	850
Agriculture	300	400

In each faculty or school there are the following additional fees:

- 1) The fee for the degree or diploma, 300 lire, excepting the diploma fee for the two-year preparatory course which is 100 lire.
- 2) The annual surfee for each subject examination is 150 lire.
- 3) The surfee for examinations for degrees and diplomas is 75 lire.
- 4) The surfee for each deficiency examination in each course is 20 lire.
- 5) The surfee for deficiency examination for degree or diploma is 50 lire.
- 6) The annual fee for special students (*fuori corso*) is 100 lire.

Table I: Secretarial Fees (Articles 158, 225, and 237)

For each certificate, copy or extracts of acts or registers	3 lire
For degrees or diplomas conferred on completion of studies	3.50 lire

Table I. The Passing of State Examinations is Required for the Practice of the Following Professions: (Article 173)

Profession	Degree or Diploma Required for Admission to the State Examination
Legal Procurator	Degree in Jurisprudence
Lawyer	Degree in Jurisprudence
Notary	Degree in Jurisprudence
Physician and Surgeon	Degree in Medicine and Surgery
Pharmacist	Degree in Chemistry and Pharmacy
	Degree or Diploma in Pharmacy
Engineer	Degree in Civil Engineering
	Degree in Industrial Engineering
	Degree in Naval Engineering
	Degree in Mining Engineering
Architect	Degree in Architecture
	Degree in Civil Engineering
Chemist	Degree in Chemistry
	Degree in Chemistry and Pharmacy
	Degree in Industrial Chemistry
Veterinarian	Degree in Veterinary Medicine
Agriculturist	Degree in Agricultural Sciences
Forest Expert	Degree in Forest Sciences
	Diploma as Forest Expert
Professional Men in Economic & Commerce	Degree in Economic and Commercial Sciences (Exception is made for teaching in foreign languages in Royal Higher Institute of Economic and Commercial Sciences of Venice).
	Degree in Economic, Political & Social Sciences
	Degree in Economic and Maritime Sciences

Notes: For the profession of teacher in high school subjects, the rules contained in Article 179, second paragraph, and the degrees required for admission to the individual competitive examinations are fixed by the regulation governing competitive examinations in high schools.

(2) No one may practice dentistry unless he has passed the State examination in medicine and surgery, excepting graduates in medicine and surgery who come under the conditions specified in the first and second paragraph of Article 326 of the present Consolidated Law, and excepting those who are legally qualified to practice dentistry by virtue of measures passed before those contained in the Royal decree of October 16, 1924, No. 1755.

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